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ABSTRACT

Designed to supplement the main text, "Administration of Distance-Teaching Institutions," this volume presents 29 case studies of varied distance teaching projects, which are primarily excerpted from published books, journals, and reports, and chosen to illustrate particular themes, such as organization and administration of distance teaching, departmental organization, program coordination, budgets, and constitutions. Distance education programs and topics discussed include intensive course writing; ACPO (Accion Cultural Popular), a radio school in Colombia; radio at the Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre; broadcasting at the Mauritius College of the Air; the University of Lagos Correspondence and Open Studies Unit broadcasts; telephone tutoring in Australia; two-way radio in Malawi; radio learning campaigns; study centers at the British Open University, in Botswana, and in Nigeria; the National Extension College; and the Sudan Extension Unit. (LMM)

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ADMINISTRATION OF DISTANCE-TEACHING INSTITUTIONS

case studies

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Introduction

This volume of case studies is designed to supplement the main text of the manual, which is bound separately. As you work through the units of the manual, you will be asked to read particular case studies, and you should try to select for reading those most relevant to your work. The case studies have been chosen to illustrate particular themes, so if you read straight through this volume on its own, you will not find it very useful.

At the beginning of each case study there is an introductory paragraph which is boxed, like this one, telling you what it is about and acknowledging the source of the extract.

Most of the case studies are taken from published books, journals or reports. We have edited and cut many of them in order to save space and to present you with clearer illustrations of the points we are making in the manual. So sometimes you will find gaps and discontinuities in the layout. Also in one or two places we have added notes of explanation at the end of case studies which contain references you might not understand if you don't know the institution in question.

We would very much welcome readers' comments on the usefulness of any or all of these case studies as part of the manual. Please write to:

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Case study 1: Course teams at the British Open University

The British Open University teaches mainly at university level, using correspondence, broadcasts and some face-to-face teaching. The university prepares its own teaching material and employs its own full-time academic staff who write correspondence lessons and make broadcasts. Each course is produced by a course team which consists of a group of university teachers in the appropriate subject, together with a BBC producer and an educational technologist, whose job is to advise on the methods used in the course. Course teams work over a period of months or years.

A student must take six or eight courses to get a pass or honours degree, so that a single course represents a large amount of work. This description of the work of a course team is by a lecturer in mathematics at the Open University.

Adapted from 'Life inside the course team' by John Mason in Teaching at a distance No. 5, 1976.

There is so much going on inside a course team that it is very difficult to describe it explicitly and do it justice. I have served on four full credit teams, and watched several others from the wings and in detail they have been quite different. Much of this difference probably depends on the personalities involved, the nature and purpose of the course and the experience and talents of both chairmen and members. Yet the ebb and flow of energies, the cycle of production and the pattern of tasks is basically the same.

Initiation

When the course team is first formed, there is a tremendous sense of potential. So many things are possible and worth exploring. Very quickly the team develops the attitude that it will be the best course yet! But as years have gone by, in the Open University experience, it has been noticeable that this early energy declines. New staff still have it, but long term members sitting on rewrite teams find it much harder to get in touch with that tremendous welling of initial enthusiasm. It is not so easy to infect oneself! We depend a great deal on the surrounding conditions, and those conditions are not nearly as favourable now as in the first three or four years of the University's existence.

Involvement

After a good deal of the 'pie-in-the-sky' type of discussion, the team should settle down to drafting the details of objectives, content, assessment, approach and so on. Sometimes this detail provides energy for each course team member, but sometimes, especially after a not very encouraging start, the hard slog necessary to produce a course can be very depressing indeed. The course team chairman is needed here to help the more solid force of involved energy displace the fragile sparks of initial enthusiasm. It is interesting to note that the excitement of a vista of possibilities has, in some course teams, turned into a immobilizing oppression because it is so hard to decide which ideas to keep and which to abandon. It always hurts to drop a good idea. If the remaining ideas are accepted and powerful, then the act of selecting them seems to release a burst of energy latent in

them. But, if they are halfheartedly accepted, or not particularly powerful, then it can take a long time before real steam is built up. In these situations a crisp decision is probably better than a woolly one, but it must be made by a chairman who is respected by the team. In other words the chairman actually transfers to uncertain team members the energy present in his decisiveness.

Separation

A feeling of hopelessness is quite frequent in my experience of course teams, particularly where content is concerned. How can we get enough in to reach the required academic standard and yet fit it all into so few units? How can we meet all our deadlines? How can we carry out our innovations in spite of the increasing rigidity of the system? These are just a few of the insoluble problems which face a course team. In the early days, through innocence, good fortune and some insight, we managed to blast our way through them, largely on the force of our enthusiasm and commitment. As the procedures have become formalized an essential insolubility returns to mock us. Nevertheless the course teams plough on. The way out of these dilemmas is often to dodge the issues or to bow reluctantly to the system and the inevitable restrictions on time and resources which it imposes. This reluctance does not permit any real transformation, for it obscures the creative possibilities of working within restrictions. I associate this with the loss of collective spirit on many teams.

Commitment

Every so often however, something happens in a team which seems to make all the pieces fit for a while. The team begins to pull in the same direction and things move smoothly.

I have observed however that the pace of decision-making and vision-forming increases (as it must with everyone pulling together) and it is not long before someone gets frightened and wants to slow down. This is one point where it can be crucial to have an experienced chairman, for the road can suddenly turn very bumpy again!

Insight

True insight which can lead to the transformation of individual and team energies, and the creation of a shared vision of the course is very rare indeed. On both M100 and M202 we came close to it but to be close is not good enough. What we thought was a collective vision seemed to dissolve when authors handed in their units. It is very difficult to share a vision. It is not sufficient simply to try to write it all down on paper. For example in M202 the combination of frequent seminars and the circulation of documents still failed to communicate adequately. Our noses are usually pointed so firmly in the direction of deadlines that any sense of the whole is dissipated by the time the course is half finished. Near the end we raise our eyes to the next task (a new course, maintenance, study leave) and neglect the final details of course production as a team event. Sometimes only the editor and chairman even know that it is finished!

Postscript

One point that emerged for me in setting down these observations, is the importance for energy to flow from one level of course team organization to another. Although I have not discussed it here, the student experiences these stages very strongly as he works on a TMA, studies a unit, and pursues his course as a whole. At various times he needs an injection to support and maintain his energy (attention, interest, motivation, etc.). This is provided by the author through the units (including all the media supports and tutors.) The author needs the same support from the team in the form of comments, direction and moral support. In particular, if an author is in need of a boost, and the team as a whole is at an ebb, then the quality of the output is much inferior to what is possible at other times. Yet our scheduling assumes that energy is in constant supply and at the beck and call of author or team whenever needed.

The team also needs direction and support and this can come from a collective harmony or from the chairman (particularly in the form of a vision or sense of the whole). The chairman and his team need the same support at crucial times from the University as a whole (sense of purpose, appropriateness, context and so on).

Notes

M100 = Mathematics : a foundation course

M202 = Topics in pure mathematics

TMA = tutor-marked assignment

Case study 2: Intensive course writing

This paper describes the writing of correspondence courses in short intensive workshops. It draws on the experience of the authors at the Botswana Extension College and Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre, which co-operated in the production of secondary-level correspondence courses through such intensive work.

Adapted from 'Mathematicians and intensive course writing' by Gordon Leech and Paul Murphy in *Teaching at a distance* No. 8, 1977.

This paper is a description of the way in which one single correspondence course was produced for use in Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. We think that other correspondence materials can be produced in a similar way and that this may have implications for the organization of writing correspondence courses anywhere. It almost certainly has implications for the writing, and the production of correspondence courses in Southern Africa.

The course The course concerned covers the mathematics syllabus of the University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland Junior Certificate examination. This syllabus is normally covered by school candidates in three years.

The correspondence materials were written in three intensive writing weeks. Each week produced enough written material to cover the work normally done by school students in one year. After each week an editor processed the written materials, standardized them where necessary and passed them on to be printed. The first intensive writing week took place in Swaziland in December 1973, the second in Botswana in March 1974 and the final one in Lesotho in April 1975.

The materials for the first year's work were written and produced in Swaziland and were edited in both Swaziland and Lesotho. The materials for the second year's work were written in Lesotho and produced there, after being edited in Swaziland. The materials for the final year's work were written, edited and produced in Botswana.

During the first writing session, it was affectionately dubbed a 'circus' and as this name has stuck we shall use it here in the rest of the paper.

Strategy The major decisions concerned with layout, breakdown of the material into units, textbooks, other aids to students, and even a plan for the presentation of each unit were worked out before the first group of writers met. They spent the first two hours confirming and becoming familiar with each of those decisions. As there were only three people involved, and they had already consulted each other on the decisions, it wasn't difficult to achieve agreement.

There were other factors that probably helped in this first stage:

- 1 The three main writers knew and respected each other,

- 2 two had taught the syllabus in schools for many years and had helped to re-present for local consumption one of the textbooks which covered the syllabus,
- 3 two, not the same two, had a great deal of prior experience writing correspondence courses,
- 4 the three writers were attracted to a layout that already existed,
- 5 each was prepared to go with a majority decision on disputed points,
- 6 a series of textbooks existed (SMP) which had heavily influenced the syllabus, and SMP had also run training programmes for teachers in the three countries.

When the decisions on layout and course structure had been taken, the writing began.

In what follows we have divided the organization of the writing into different stages. In reality these stages were not followed in sequence as we have described them.

Familiarization

Each week began with a familiarization session. This was usually a talk describing the aims of the writing week and a breakdown of the actual work into units of writing. (These were written up and circulated before the second and third circuits.) Everybody asked questions and discussed different aspects of the breakdown of tasks. Then a timetable was worked out and units were chosen by writers.

Writing techniques

The structure and breakdown of each unit was discussed and writing techniques initiated. The most constructive approach was to set the behavioural objectives of the lesson and encourage writers to teach to objectives. Our particular lesson structure involved:

- 1 a list of equipment followed by
- 2 an introduction preparing the student for the lesson or recalling past knowledge he would need for the lesson;
- 3 a list of behavioural objectives in question form;
- 4 a body of the lesson, which had questions with immediate answers, references to the textbook, exercises with answers at the end of a study and diagrams;
- 5 a test on the work of the lesson and
- 6 a summary of the work involved in the lesson.

The writing begins

Writers then went to different parts of the room or to different rooms with books, equipment and materials and wrote a lesson, or as much of a lesson as they could in three-quarters of a day. It was basically a first attempt for people to get their ideas down and try to put shape to them.

As individuals decided what their behavioural objectives were, they wrote them down on a board for the others to see.

An evaluation session

At the end of the first writing stage, everybody came together and divided into groups of two or three, where appropriate. Each group included at least one very experienced writer. Lessons prepared were circulated between members of a group so that in one group each person read the lessons of the others and noted down their comments. All the participants then came together and discussed each lesson in turn. This was the most productive session and everybody learned from it.

Integration and presentation

At some point during the early sessions somebody, usually the editor, gave details about instructions to be laid out for typists, artists, etc. This was done so as not to interfere with the first writing attempts. Later, the first attempt was rewritten and evaluated again. Usually at this stage the lesson was ready for editing, and if time allowed, the writer did a final rewrite to get the lesson ready for the typist and artist.

What is involved?

The three circuses were very different, for a variety of reasons. The number of writers increased with each circus and, naturally enough, the working time spent by each writer decreased, for the total workload for preparing each year's course is about the same.

<i>Circus one</i>	3 writers 6½ days 13 working hours per day between 6.00 am and 10.00 pm Total working time 250 man-hours
<i>Circus two</i>	5 writers 4½ days 13 working hours per day between 6.00 am and 10.00 pm Total working time 260 man-hours
<i>Circus three</i>	9 writers 4½ days 8½ working hours per day between 8.00 am and 6.00 pm Total working time 245 man-hours

These totals show a remarkable similarity in total time spent.

Many people expressed horror at the working hours of the first two circuses, although nobody declined to take part for that reason. We would defend the decision to work easier hours on the third occasion when more people were writing. But both these authors prefer the intensive scheme of the earlier workshops and would advocate using it again to reduce the length in days of the session by about thirty-five per cent. This opinion is not shared by the writers who worked only in the third circus.

Comparisons

An obvious question is 'How long does it take to write the course?' Subjects vary greatly, but taking as a basis a mathematics course at Junior Certificate level using good textbooks, the circus method involves about 750 man-hours. The full-time writer, lacking the constant stimulus of colleagues and the immediate consultation they make possible, will take longer, perhaps up to 1,000 hours of work. The part-time writer has to stop and start again many more times and this break in continuity must increase the time he needs, which may become 1,200 to 1,500 working hours.

Of more practical importance to the college is the elapsed time – how long is it from starting work to finishing writing? Here the circus is obviously much quicker with a total of less than sixteen days – but in three separate sessions. One would not want to keep up the pace continuously for more than a week. The full-time course writer could not reasonably be expected to devote his whole attention to his course for the twenty-five weeks that 1,000 working hours suggests by plain arithmetic. He would normally be expected, and certainly needs, to do other things and a writing span of nine to twelve months is probable. The part-timer might well take twice as long as this.

Motivation is a further factor in the success of course writing. The circus maintains this very highly, with constant stimulation from other writers, immediate discussion of problems and a sense of creative team work that does really stimulate creativity. The full-time writer works largely on his own and must maintain his interest and enthusiasm for much longer, months against days. He usually has (and needs) the relief of other duties but creativity can flag and a spell of non-production is not uncommon. With part-time writers this problem is magnified. Nobody undertaking to write his first correspondence course has any real conception of the scale of his task, and eagerness can easily decline into disillusionment. In our experience in Africa the drop-out rate of commissioned part-time course writers is disastrous.

How effective is the course produced by each method? We hope later to produce an evaluation of the circus course in use. Subjectively however we would claim that this method gives a better chance of an effective course. This is because each part as it is written is examined critically by other writers. This exchange of comment must raise the quality of the work produced. The high level of enthusiasm mentioned earlier is surely conducive to better lessons. A small point is that with writers from several areas involved, the chances of arranging effective pre-testing of material are better too.

So far we have quoted factors in favour of the circus. Is there nothing against it? Yes, of course. It needs, as mentioned earlier, a number of factors agreed beforehand, such as syllabus content, textbook, general format of the course. It needs agreement, too, on the working basis for mutual criticism. A course style has to be accepted rather than the writer's own style where they differ. The writers must be able to agree quickly and amicably about details of lesson arrangements, use of exercises, placing of answers and other such details. With us, all this has happened easily. We would not generalize, however, to claim that it must therefore work well with all groups of writers in all subjects at all levels. Perhaps the clear-cut nature of mathematics makes it easier for teachers to agree.

Conclusion As these three circuses have shown, a course can be written in an extremely short time. It involves these things:

Before writing starts

- 1 an agreed syllabus or list of subject-matter for the course,
- 2 agreement about the textbooks, if any, to be used,
- 3 a team of writers who are willing to work co-operatively and can quickly agree on order of topics and who writes what,
- 4 writers who will accept a course and lesson structure based fairly closely on one proposed by the workshop organizer, and modified by consensus of writers' views.

During the writing

- 1 writers willing to submit their drafts to colleagues' criticism and rewrite or modify in the light of supported criticism,
- 2 willingness to work continuously without a change for longer than normal office hours,
- 3 a place where writing can go on undisturbed outside, as well as inside, normal hours.

Case study 3: ACPO — a radio school

ACPO (Accion Cultural Popular or Cultural Popular Action) is one of a number of radio schools in Latin America. It runs its own radio station and uses radio and correspondence courses for teaching basic education, mainly to rural families. It employs field staff to support these courses. ACPO was founded by a Roman Catholic priest and retains strong links with the Roman Catholic Church.

Adapted from 'Colombia: A multimedia rural education program' by Stephan F Brumberg, in M Ahmed and P Coombs, Education for rural development (Praeger, New York 1975) pp 3-13.

ACPO began in 1947 with the founding of the radio station that has since become Colombia's largest radio network, Radio Sutatenza. The station, founded by Monseñor José Joaquín Salcedo (who is still director of ACPO), was conceived as the prime vehicle through which a basic educational program (including structured courses) could be directed to the rural population. This educational program is now a wide-ranging multimedia effort encompassing a newspaper, textbooks, book series, and recordings, as well as radio.

Organization

ACPO is administered from central headquarters in Bogotá. It has been directed since its founding by Monseñor Salcedo and has experienced continuity and stability of personnel at all levels in the organization.

The institution is organized into three major divisions: cultural, administration, and radio transmission management. Backing up these three divisions are the financial office and the board of directors of ACPO. The radio division is responsible for the technical aspects of the radio network and also includes production of noneducational programming. The division of administration is concerned with the personnel of ACPO; it controls Editorial Andes, ACPO's wholly owned publishing house, a profit corporation which produces ACPO's printed materials; and is generally responsible for administrative matters pertaining to the operation of ACPO.

The Cultural Division is the most important in terms of this study. It is responsible for the educational radio programs (including program content and supervision of radio teachers), the weekly newspaper of ACPO, editorial responsibility for the production of ACPO's textbook series (cartillas) and special campesino book series, the operation of the two campesino training institutes created by ACPO to train field personnel, and coordination of the educational activities of the three regional centers of ACPO in Cali, Medellín, and Barranquilla.

ACPO AS A DELIVERY SYSTEM

ACPO's program is carried to its rural audience through multiple reinforcing channels. These can be grouped into three major modes of communication: radio, printed matter, and personal contacts.

Radio Sutatenza

ACPO owns and operates Colombia's largest radio network, Radio Sutatenza. The name of the network is taken from the small municipality in the Department of Boyacá where the first station was founded in 1947. By means of long- and short-wave transmissions, Radio Sutatenza covers the entire geographic area of Colombia. Its focus to date has been primarily rural Colombia, although it is now seeking to cultivate an urban audience during the hours when there are fewer rural listeners.

Radio Sutatenza has a 19-hour broadcast day. Its programming consists of 6 hours of structured courses offered in the "Escuelas Radiofónicas" (radio schools), as well as programs of informal education (for example, programs offering practical advice on agriculture and the home, general entertainment, and news).

Escuelas Radiofónicas (Radio Schools)

The "radio school" is the seed from which the entire ACPO organization has grown. Started in 1947 with a handful of students, there were 303 schools in 1950 with 3,636 students. In 1965 there were 28,535 schools with 240,915 students, and in 1968, the last year for which comprehensive data were available (as of 1971), there were 169,696 students in 22,212 schools.

The term radio schools may be misleading. These are not special school buildings with classrooms filled with students; a radio school is a small group of individuals (the average number is less than eight), often all members of the same family or close neighbors, who meet daily in one of the student's homes to listen to the radio class.

The "school" is administered by an auxiliar inmediato (immediate auxiliary)--a member of the local community who usually has slightly more formal education than his neighbors (or other family members) and who volunteers to organize a radio school. It becomes his duty to help promote enrollment, organize a regular meeting site, obtain a radio for the class, see that the students attend regularly and on time, tune the radio into the proper station, assist the students during the radio class (upon instruction from the radio teacher), encourage discussion after class, and ensure that a set of textbooks is available for the class as well as a blackboard and chalk (if possible) and pencils and paper.

Course Content. Three courses of study are offered by ACPO: basic, progressive, and complementary.

The Basic Course is literacy instruction in the four fundamental operations of arithmetic. The class, 30 minutes long, is aired six days a week with equal time allotted to literacy and arithmetic.

The Progressive Course requires, on the average, two years to complete and constitutes the core programming of ACPO; it accounts for 60 percent of all enrollment. This course seeks to impart fundamental integral education.

The Complementary Course, ACPO's newest offering, began in 1970 in response to audience requests (via written correspondence). This three-year course is still in an experimental stage. It is aimed at preparing primary school dropouts for the primary school leaving exam.

Preparation of Course Materials. The program content for each course year is planned well in advance of the year's first program. The preparation of the pedagogical input (with the exception of religious instruction content) is the responsibility of a staff of 12 teachers who are well qualified in both teacher training and subject matter specialization. This same teaching team was largely responsible for the preparation of the textbook series as well. The radio classes are prepared anew each year, thus permitting revision and updating of material.

All radio lessons are prerecorded, a procedure with several advantages: errors can be edited out before broadcasting; a quality check can be maintained on content and

presentation prior to presentation; program continuity is ensured from day to day despite absences of teachers or other staff; and more efficient utilization of teachers' time, studio facilities, and technical staff is possible. Moreover, since radio classes are taped, a class can be repeated several times a day.

Although any radio can receive ACPO broadcasts, ACPO sells special radio receivers to participants in their courses. At present, some 25,000 receivers are sold annually. The sets are sold at a small profit to ACPO (about 7 pesos per set). The present model, a four-tube transistorized Sanyo with free long-wave tuning and fixed frequency short-wave tuning, sells for 460 to 480 pesos, which is lower than the general market price for comparable sets, although cheaper radios are available. The key advantage of the ACPO receiver is that fixed frequency short-wave tuning ensures good reception of ACPO broadcasts.

With normal use and care the sets last 10 years or longer. Repair of sets is facilitated through the regional representatives of ACPO and the affiliated stores. Broken sets can be exchanged at regional offices until repairs are made so that the student does not have to miss lessons.

Other Programming of Radio Sutatenza

Classes of the radio school account for one-third of air time on the long-wave stations. An additional quarter of air time is for programs that are educational in nature but not structured into classes as in the case of the radio school programs. The most important of these, "Buenos Días," is an hour and a half network show carried daily from 4:00 to 5:30 a.m. It has the largest audience of Radio Sutatenza's programs and is directed toward farm families. The show includes news items of interest to rural audiences, motivational messages, practical home and agricultural advice, weather, and the time, interspersed with music.

General entertainment, which accounts for 30.7 percent of air time, is intended to provide "cultural uplift" to the listening audience. These programs compete with commercial radio for listeners, and the more cultural programs (such as classical music) do not find a ready audience in most rural households.

One of the most popular forms of entertainment is the music request program. A considerable volume of mail is received and the possible mention of one's name on the air is a strong stimulus for listening.

Although most programming is directed to rural areas, programs aired from 12:00 noon until 2:00 p.m. and from 8:00 to 11:00 p.m. tend to focus on an urban audience. During these hours the farmer is presumably in his fields or in bed and the time can thus be freed for a more urban-oriented audience. It is hoped that increased advertising revenues will be realized by developing an urban listening audience.

The final category of programming is the news, taking up more than 10 percent of air time (not including the short news bulletins of "Buenos Días"). ACPO sees the news broadcasts as a means of breaking down the sense of isolation of the rural masses, who are not only physically separated from the national society, but also isolated from contemporary currents of public opinion. In ACPO's view, "news is offered as an information service which will extend to the rural milieu the possibilities of information which are enjoyed by citizens in urban areas."

Case study 4: Radio at the Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre

The Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre was set up by the International Extension College with the Ministry of Education in Lesotho to offer both formal and non-formal education through distance-teaching methods. Although the Centre has concentrated mainly on printed material and face-to-face study, it has done some work with radio, producing its own programmes which were transmitted on Radio Lesotho. Some were for its formal courses, which lead to secondary level examinations in, for example, English, mathematics, agriculture and bookkeeping. Others were for its non-formal work.

Adapted from *The Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre* by Paud Murphy (International Extension College, Cambridge 1981), pp 45-47.

Radio

Although the Centre concentrates on printed materials, it is obvious that radio has potential as a learning medium in Lesotho. When we learned, late in 1975, of Radio Lesotho's plans to instal two new medium-wave transmitters, we decided to begin to prepare radio programmes.

Our method of scripting and producing radio programmes for private candidates changed over the years. When we employed a radio producer (who had worked for Radio Lesotho) in 1975, we began to develop a series of radio programmes in each of our first group of Junior Certificate subjects — mathematics, agricultural science and book-keeping and commerce.

We began with subject teams composed mainly of secondary teachers and teacher trainers, working together with one full-time Centre staff member — usually the course writer — to decide on format and to produce a list of ideas. Individual members of the team would choose topics and write scripts on these. The subject team would meet again to discuss these scripts and revise them. Finally the writer and Centre staff would produce the programme. This system worked in mathematics, insofar as the subject team produced a series of programmes. In both agriculture and book-keeping, the Centre course writers were the only ones who produced scripts. The part-time team members all dropped out. Even in mathematics, the quality of the scripts varied from half a page of ideas to a full script with characters' emotions suggested and ideas for background noise given.

This experience prompted us to take on a full-time scriptwriter to develop new programmes in English and to revise the programmes in mathematics, agricultural science and book-keeping during 1976. The quality of these programmes depended to some extent on the subject expertise of the scriptwriter and in 1977 we moved towards our present system of developing programmes. This is to make it a joint effort of the course writer and the radio section, ensuring that the content is correct and the radio presentation is lively.

Programmes are checked by Centre staff at a number of points. When a script is prepared it is checked by a subject person for accuracy and by another senior staff member for educational effectiveness. Their

suggestions are incorporated into the revised script and then it is recorded. We have always used Centre staff to act the different parts and over the years we have had some very good actors. Another senior staff member listens to the final recording and suggests changes or re-recording. We had great difficulty with the actual recording initially, as we had to do all our work in Radio Lesotho's studios before we got our own, and the time they could make available was limited. We rehearsed and tried out programmes in the Centre and then went to Radio Lesotho to do the final recording. We could not experiment with different sound inputs and levels there. In 1978 we equipped our new studio and employed a trained technician; now all our rehearsals are done and final programmes produced in our own studio.

The format

Our intention in developing our first radio programmes was to motivate our own students and to provide interesting programmes for a general audience. Each programme or small group of programmes was to stand on its own. We wanted to allow casual listeners to listen in at any time and to allow our own students to benefit, whatever their enrolment date. This intention has changed a good deal, as a result of our research into listenership, and as a result of our decision to integrate radio, courses and face-to-face study more closely. We are now concentrating on producing programmes which are directly useful to our own students. These changing intentions also affected our format. We began by providing a range of characters in villages or towns in Lesotho, who would run into subject problems which they would resolve. A subject person would then summarise the learning from the programme. Evaluation showed that our students wanted less drama and more direct teaching, so we are now using mainly a two-voice format, often a teacher and a student, always a learner and an expert, talking to each other about a subject, with the expert summarising at the end.

This format is obviously a lot easier to maintain than a village situation format would be, and it is also easier to find two 'characters' from among Centre staff than it is to find five or six.

Our radio work to support rural people, other organisations and herdboys involved mainly short one-minute spots. These were intended to convey a simple message and usually ended with a slogan — 'The Lesotho Family Planning Association is there to help you, the choice is yours', was one. The spots were to reinforce the message of our printed materials and the slogan would appear in the printed materials as well. Spots are obviously easy, and fun, to do. Our spots began with a signature tune fading into a one-minute situation and ended with a message. For a series of spots, the situations changed; the signature tunes and the slogans did not.

Case study 5: Broadcasting at the Mauritius College of the Air

The Mauritius College of the Air was established by the International Extension College at the request of the Government of Mauritius. One of its major activities was to provide distance-teaching courses for use within secondary schools, in order to raise their quality.

Mauritius is a small, densely populated, island. When MCA was established the country already had a television service whose signals reached all parts of the island. The College was therefore able to use television as well as radio in its courses, as described below.

Adapted from 'The Mauritius College of the Air' by Tony Dodds, in H Perraton (ed.), *Alternative routes to formal education* (Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore 1982).

Television series have accompanied most of the courses. People throughout Mauritius have access to television, although only a limited number of families have sets in their homes. Public sets are found in most villages in the social welfare center, so communal viewing is quite common. Because most secondary schools are usually drab, it was decided to use television to brighten and enliven the business of studying. To do so, schools had to be provided with television sets, at first on loan, then on a subsidized basis.

The programmers have tried to bring into the classroom examples of applied learning, such as the use of English at work in Mauritius or the application of human biology to family diets, or the rearing and feeding of rabbits. They have concentrated on demonstration and stimulation rather than on repetition of what is in the printed text. This has necessitated a large amount of outside filming.

The MCA has made much more limited use of radio. One of the most important disadvantages of television programs, apart from their costs, is that they absorb vast amounts of time and skills, both scarce resources in a country like Mauritius. For a variety of reasons, including a shortage of radio airtime, the MCA has consistently neglected the potential of radio in its multimedia packages. The only regular radio programs have been used as part of the English language course to provide drills in oral English to give students practice in hearing and understanding continuous pieces of English spoken by people who use the language correctly. At times, the radio programs have begun to exploit radio's flexibility. In one series, almost by accident, the tutor discovered and exploited its ability to stimulate creative writing projects. Two (comprehension) passages were used as installments in a Mauritius suspense drama, and some students could not wait for the next installment. They were, therefore, encouraged to produce their own conclusions. This led to a writing competition between schools, with the best results read out over the radio in later programs.

The MCA programs have been broadcast by the Mauritius Broadcasting Corporation (MBC), a part-government, part-independent, part-commercial institution. They have also been produced

in the MBC studios, mainly on MBC equipment, and at the hands of MBC technical staff. The MCA has maintained its own graphics art team and, for much of the time, its own producers. Television and radio scripts have been prepared by the MCA. MBC producers and cameramen have been attached to MCA programs for varying proportions of their time. The MCA has obtained, either by purchase or by gift, various items of production equipment, such as audio and video tape recorders, cameras, and editing facilities. Audio and video tapes and film used in the programs have been provided and maintained by the MCA itself. Each year, the MBC has charged the MCA for production services, including the use of staff, equipment, and studios. No charge has been made for transmission.

Case study 6: University of Lagos Correspondence and Open Studies Unit broadcasts

The Correspondence and Open Studies Unit (COSU) of the University of Lagos, Nigeria, was established in 1975 to provide degree courses, initially in science education and business studies. Courses which used correspondence as the main means of teaching, supported by radio series and occasional face-to-face tutorials, were developed at Lagos and made available throughout Nigeria. From the beginning the Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation agreed to be fully involved in the preparation of the radio component.

This note, by Tony Dodds, the first Director of COSU, describes the arrangements which were made to produce and broadcast the programmes.

Nigeria has had a schools broadcasting service for many years. Originally this operated as an almost separate unit, with staff and studios of its own, under the umbrella and ultimate control of the Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation (as it was then called). In 1975, when COSU came into being, the NBC offered the services of its schools broadcasting unit to COSU to provide production and transmission facilities for the new Open Studies programme. It was agreed that COSU would appoint a member of staff at senior lecturer level to take charge of the development, and to ensure full academic integration of the radio programmes into the multi-media teaching package. The NBC would second experienced educational producers to work with the Senior Lecturer, Broadcasting, in actually making the programmes. The producers, under his control, would be members of the course teams and would liaise with the subject lecturers who were writing the correspondence courses. They would plan the programmes, commission script-writers and record and produce the programmes. Studio facilities were available at the university's Centre for Mass Communications. Where these were inadequate or inconvenient, NBC's own studios in Lagos and Ibadan would be used.

COSU, was from the beginning fully involved in editorial decisions about the programmes, thus ensuring that they were integral parts of the teaching package. However, they were broadcast as part of NBC's normal educational output. The transmission times were agreed in negotiations between COSU and NBC. COSU undertook to pay appropriate fees to part-time staff employed to advise on, write scripts for and present radio programmes; NBC paid the full production and transmission costs, including the salaries of the producers it seconded to COSU for specific periods. COSU made arrangements for the programmes to be available to students, not only through normal open radio broadcasts but also by copying them onto audio cassettes and distributing them to study centres (see Case Study 15) where cassette recorders were available. Students were also able to buy copies of the cassette recordings if they wished.

These arrangements worked well during the first period of COSU's operation. Unfortunately they had to be suspended in 1977 due to shortages of staff in both COSU - the Senior Lecturer, Broadcasting, was Acting Director of the Unit and was not replaced - and NBC, which was unable to second experienced producers to COSU for the time required. The suspension was seen at the time as purely temporary. However, it revealed two problems in the arrangements. First it proved difficult to negotiate the appropriate academic status within the university for the COSU broadcasting officer, who required technical and professional training and

experience rather than academic qualifications but needed to be able to discuss courses and programmes on equal terms with senior academics in university departments; as a result it was difficult to find funds and the right person to replace the first holder of the post when he became Acting Director. Secondly, however enthusiastic NBC was about being fully involved in the project, it turned out to put more strain on its existing schools broadcasting staff than had been expected or was in the long run acceptable, and no additional funds were available to increase its establishment. Once the staffing problem could be overcome, however, this relationship was designed to make maximum use of existing broadcasting resources. Separate staff and facilities could hardly be justified in the light of the expected numbers in the target audience.

Case study 7: Telephone tutoring in Australia

Distance education has a long history in Australia. Its sparse and scattered population means that, for much of this century, educators have adopted distance-teaching methods in order to reach isolated students.

Recently many colleges of advanced education (which have developed out of former teacher training colleges) have started to offer courses at a distance. The Mount Gravatt College of Advanced Education is one of these. Knowing that most of his students were likely to have telephones, Mr Meggitt decided to experiment with telephone tutorials.

Adapted from 'Telephone tutorials - a cost-benefit analysis' by T Meggitt, ASPESA Newsletter, 7:1 1981.

I am writing this short piece so that colleagues also involved in the wonderful world of distance education might assess the value of the "telephone tutorial" or "conference call" recommended to us at a staff seminar at the end of 1979.

My students in the Graduate Diploma, Educational Administration were contacted by mail and informed that five time slots, each of one hour, were available to students (eight at a time) to talk with me, and one another, on a kind of "party line". This suited me, as I previously spent considerable time, at odd hours, reassuring, clarifying and counselling students "in the bush" on my home phone at this time of the year.

Believe me, each hour flew and I would strongly urge you to structure and then manage the time allocated to each segment of your telephone tute. I generally welcomed them with an ice-breaking quip and then called the roll, checking on the reception at each place of contact.

I then asked each student to introduce him/herself under the headings: name, school or college, position, major interests outside teaching and administration, and finally, any item they wanted included on the agenda for discussion. You will not be too surprised to read that their major concerns were course requirements and in particular assessment requirements. Each participant was then asked to outline his/her major project proposal (a four phase "live" staff training and development or job redesign intervention). Each student was then counselled on how to get started, pitfalls, resources and related items.

Finally, I asked each student for feedback on the external course notes and arrangements - those items/strategies that were working well and they wanted more of; those items/strategies that were not effective and suggestions for improvement. The ideas forthcoming were both plentiful and constructive and resulted in the following action:

- (a) I sent out a reprint of a major article which was very hard to read.
- (b) I included further review questions and answers with each unit.
- (c) I scrapped the glossy A5 booklets (type too small, paper too shiny), and returned to the A4 format.
- (d) I sent further audio-tapes and will redesign the introductory tape for next year.
- (e) I sent copies of the best projects to all course members.
- (f) I coded the reference lists to pinpoint the most useful.
- (g) Study groups were set up in remote centres.
- (h) I sent supplementary resource material to individual students.
- (i) I *WILL* continue with telephone tutes *EARLY* in the course.

Such "developmental" evaluation *EARLY* in the course has been invaluable. This was clearly borne out in the post-course evaluation.

I concluded this jam-packed hour by involving the students in the design of the vacation school in May (followed up by a training needs survey in Book 3), commented on my expectations of standards of submitted work, and wished them cheerio and good luck.

The total cost for four hours, involving 25 students - about \$700. To send me to places as far afield would have cost far more and would have cost me a good deal of time away from my other teaching and administrative duties.

Case study 8: Two-way radio in Malawi

In the early 1970s the Centre for Extension Studies of the University of Malawi was interested in experimenting with new techniques of adult education. At the same time a large rural development project, the Lilongwe Land Development Programme, was particularly concerned with raising agricultural productivity. To do this it had an extensive field staff and used two-way radio to keep in touch with them. In this extract Ronald Clarke, who was then Director of the Centre for Extension Studies, describes, with honest detail, a short experiment in using two-way radio.

Adapted from Report on an experimental course in the use of two-way radio in adult education by Ronald Clarke (University of Malawi, Centre for Extension Studies 1972).

In October 1971 the present Director, Mr Ronald Clarke, visited the Lilongwe Land Development Programme where a two-way VHF radio system is used to link a number of unit offices in the field to the Programme headquarters.

As a result of discussions with the Project Training Officer, Mr Peter Allister, it was agreed that this network offered an excellent opportunity for a further experiment in the use of two-way radio for education. There are a number of technical assistants working in the field who could benefit from further education and yet who cannot attend evening classes or be spared for periods of full-time further education at this stage; at the same time the sets are already installed and used for regular communication and it was therefore largely a matter of extending their functions. Their use for education would thus be an extension exercise in more ways than one.

A proposal for an experimental course was then put to the Programme Manager who agreed to the use of the radio system for this purpose.

Choice of course and subject

It was decided that Mr Clarke should conduct a preliminary experimental course on four consecutive evenings.

Practical English Usage was chosen as the subject for the initial course, partly because it is a popular subject of direct value to extension workers, and partly because it would be useful as a basis for the study of other subjects. It also seemed that it should lend itself well to study through this medium, especially if the students were supplied with written study material.

PREPARATION

Inviting participants

About six weeks before the course was due to be held, advance information was sent out to 120 technical assistants who were within reach of one of the unit transceivers (i.e. a reasonable cycling distance away, maximum about 8 miles). This notice described the experiment and invited T.As to take part. The stated purpose of the experiment was:

- (a) to provide an opportunity for field staff to improve their English skills, and
- (b) to assess the usefulness of the two-way radio system as a teaching and learning medium.

It was stressed that those taking part would be expected to do a considerable amount of reading and written work before the course, since these exercises and the work sent in would form the basis of much of the radio sessions. Those who were interested and prepared to do the preliminary work were asked to fill in a form giving some details of their educational background and return it to the Training Officer.

Of the 120 forms sent out 44 were returned, and 41 T.As expressed willingness to take the course.

Preliminary exercises

About 10 days before the course was due to begin a set of preliminary exercises was sent to the 41 people who had stated that they would take the course. These included an exercise in comprehension of a piece of straightforward narrative, making a brief summary of recommendations from an official report, describing the different purposes behind various pieces of writing, and writing an official letter and/or monthly report.

35 sets of exercises were eventually returned, but only 15 were ready for marking before the 4-day course began. These were enough, however, to provide material for comment at the first evening session on 19th January.

CONDUCT OF THE 4-DAY PRELIMINARY COURSE

On each of the four days the actual radio session began at approximately 4.30 pm. and ended between 5.45 and 6.00 pm.

First day

During the morning we contacted each of the six unit radio sets from base control and asked staff to prepare tables and chairs for the evening. This was also repeated during the afternoon and was intended as a reminder to the enrolled T.As that the course was beginning that evening. One of the unit sets was found to be giving a weak signal, the cause of which was later traced to a failing battery.

Five T.As cycled in to HQ and worked there, thus taking the course 'live'. This proved to be useful as a comparison with other units, and also sometimes for helping us to interpret less audible questions. A tape recording was made of the whole of the first session.

Mr Allister began by calling up each of the units in turn to check signal and reception, and to find out which T.As had arrived to take the course at each set. Reception was generally "loud and clear" Not as many T.As as expected were at the sets at the beginning, however (15). The group at each set was asked to choose a leader.

Mr Allister then explained procedure in detail, including the use of terms such as "over", "loud and clear", "are you reading me?" and "Roger".

Two further points were made about procedure:

- (1) each unit would ask or answer questions in turn, when called;
- (2) only the group leader should speak at each set.

By the time procedural matters had been explained and questions had been asked and discussed; $\frac{3}{4}$ hour had passed and time was running short for teaching. Mr Clarke spoke for 10 minutes about the purpose of the course and gave reasons for the study of English and language usage, taking examples from the different styles of writing in one of the supplementary exercises which all participants were expected to have in front of them. When questions were asked for, however, there were no questions on the subject matter of the course or the talk which had just been given, but only on procedural matters such as on what evenings the course would be held. Questions were often repeated even after apparently detailed explanation, and there were long pauses at some units when questions were asked for.

Second day

Early in the morning it was discovered that there was a fault in the base transceiver and that it was unable to transmit. as we were unable to repair the set, we went out to the nearest unit set and broadcast the evening's session from there.

Because of the time taken in reaching this unit the start of the evening session was delayed about 20 minutes. Units were told that, as an experiment, they could come in freely with comments and questions without waiting to be asked in turn. Mr Clarke then gave a 20-minute talk on "why and how we read" with illustrations from the study material which the students had been sent and were expected to have before them.

After the talk students were again invited to ask questions, and most of these concerned one point in the talk: the physical process of eye-movements in reading (fixations, regressions, etc). Examples had been given in the study material but this was found to be particularly

difficult to explain outside a face-to-face situation, and even after several attempts at explanation, which occupied the rest of the session, it was felt that most of the students had not grasped the point over the radio or from the examples in the study material. Immediately after the radio session had closed, however, it was possible to get the point across to the T.As working at that unit, with direct illustration and demonstration, in less than 5 minutes.

Third day

As time was getting short we decided to try to force the pace a little on the third evening. One of the unit sets which was being used by only one person had been transferred to HQ to replace the defective control set.

Numbers were a little higher, perhaps suggesting that word had got round that the course was actually taking place.

One of the reading passages in the 'supplementary study material' sent out just before the course began was a 700 word extract from a planning report on health services in Malawi, and it was assumed that at least some of the T.As had already read it. Following from the previous evening's talk on reading, the exercise was to skim through this extract picking out required information. Six factual questions were dictated from control and units were asked to find the answers as soon as possible and then call back.

Answers began coming in after two minutes, and each speaker was asked first to say which unit was calling and who he was, and then to say where he found the answer in the extract, for the benefit of the other students. This exercise was completed in very good time. It was, admittedly, a relatively straightforward exercise

but it provided the opportunity for the course to come to life. By now the students (and tutors) were used to the medium and were able to come in with quick question, answer and comment. Only occasionally did two units clash by coming in at the same moment, and the confusion usually lasted only a few seconds.

After the general speeding-up of the first part of this session and the new feeling of confidence in the medium induced by this question-and-answer work, we continued with more detailed examination of a concentrated piece of writing where the meaning of several phrases needed to be examined carefully. Again the comments and suggestions came freely, even if they were mainly from two or three people, which can also happen in a face-to-face teaching situation. For the first time it was possible to feel that one was getting as much work done as one would with a similar group in a conventional classroom situation.

The session ended with a 15 minute talk on summarizing where the students were again advised to take notes.

Fourth day

The final session began with a talk on letter-writing lasting approximately 25 minutes and students were told that this was the last 'informative' talk on which they would be tested later.

Examples of letters with varying styles and purposes were then discussed (from the preliminary exercises and supplementary study material). Comments again came freely, and it seemed that none of the momentum and confidence of the previous session had been lost. Certain questions of form in official letters stimulated discussion not only between students and tutor at HQ, but between the students themselves, and also the tutors. These led to further and more detailed comparative study of some of the examples of different style which had been inadequately tackled on the first evening, for instance a description in a novel of the effect of the rains and an account of seasonal rainfall in an annual report.

The session ended with instructions on completing the test and questionnaire and sending them back, and arrangements for the continuation of the course in a week's time.

EVALUATION

Immediately after the course each participant was sent two papers to complete and return:

- (a) a questionnaire
- (b) a test on the course content.

Generally the answers given in the test papers supported the statements made in the questionnaire about the students' learning experience during the course. The test answers certainly showed that they had been able to take adequate notes on most of the points put across, and able to understand these sufficiently to re-express them comprehensibly after an interval of several days.

Our own impressions of the course were generally similar to those of the participants.

The turning point in the course, at least from the teaching angle, came on the third evening. Until then we had found the going very slow and had accomplished less than we had expected even after making allowances for getting used to the medium. This was caused partly by the time taken in explaining procedure and answering general questions on the first evening, and partly by the technical problems which arose from the fault in the base transceiver. The decision to force the pace on the third evening was justified by the response and the amount of ground covered with no apparent loss in comprehension. Active participation by the units began in earnest when they were required to answer relatively simple questions, on material they had already seen, as quickly as possible. After that answers and comments came in freely.

Although a majority stated that they preferred the system of each unit being asked in turn for questions, this was a lengthy and time-consuming process, and far removed from a normal teaching situation. Our feeling was that the nuisance of the occasional clash of voices was small compared with the gain in vigorous participation and amount of time saved. In principle it would also seem that allowing each student to participate actively (instead of just the group leader) would improve the learning experience considerably, for the very good reasons given in answers to the questionnaire; how this would work out in practice remains to be seen from experience in the continuation course.

From experience of face-to-face teaching of similar material to similar student groups I felt that, during the third and fourth evening sessions, we were achieving as much and as quickly as in a reasonably good face-to-face situation. In some respects the concentration appeared to be somewhat greater, perhaps because pure listening concentrates the attention and avoids visual distractions. This is, of course, offset by the occasions when a point could be got across much quicker by visual demonstration, and English and mainly verbal subjects are obviously better suited to this medium than other subjects requiring visual demonstration of physical processes.

This method should be superior to written correspondence study if the bases of correspondence study (i.e. writing and reading and the marking of exercises) are added as an integral part of the course, as they were here. A course relying merely on oral work (talk and discussion) would probably be inferior to equivalent work by written correspondence, and this is why many conventional radio education courses often fail to achieve the expected effect; the necessary learning basis of reading and writing is missing. Where these elements of study are integrated into the radio course the conditions for learning are much improved. With a two-way radio course in language skills all four elements of communication (speaking, listening, writing and reading) can be used and practised.

Using two-way radio also tends to improve one's own broadcasting technique. One is much more conscious of the listener, and therefore of the need to speak slowly and choose words carefully, and to aim at the comprehension of a limited number of points through varied repetition. Having a group of students taking the course in the same room was also a considerable help.

It was evident that this is a medium which can be used very effectively and inexpensively for education in a situation such as this, where a network of transceivers already exists and is available for extension of its use, and where there are groups of people such as these T.As who need further education but who for various reasons cannot easily attend normal courses.

Case study 9: Radio learning campaigns

In Tanzania and Botswana radio learning campaigns have been organised on a number of political, health and environmental issues. In each campaign a large number of radio learning groups (RLGs) have been set up, which meet for between six weeks and three months, to study the topic of the campaign by listening to regular radio programmes, reading a study guide, and discussing the programmes and the guide. Campaigns like this have reached as many as 2.5 million people in Tanzania or one in six of the adult population in Botswana.

Three people who worked on a radio learning campaign in Botswana in 1976 went on to write a handbook on running campaigns. The handbook, from which this extract is taken, takes as an example a campaign on public health, to be organised by a campaign co-ordinator who works in association with existing government agencies and through extension workers.

Extracted from How to run a radio learning group campaign by D Crowley and others (Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, Bonn 1978), pp 26-31.

Part 1 – A Brief Overview of the Campaign



Aims:

to promote a more hygienic environment through promoting

1. safe water
2. latrines
3. rubbish disposal
4. clean handling of food

Target audience

- 100,000 adults in 7,000 RLGs
- as a secondary audience, all school children, migrant labourers

Method

- a) 10 Radio Programmes broadcast over five weeks to the RLGs.
- b) Each RLG will have a trained group leader.
- c) RLGs will use study materials in the 10 study sessions.
- d) They will discuss the content of each session, take practical action on it where appropriate and report on their study/action sessions to the Campaign organisers.

Costs - a donor is needed to fund the project as follows

fieldwork and training	60,000
materials	80,000
consultation	25,000
evaluation	10,000
miscellaneous	25,000

total US-\$ 200,000

Staffing

Most tasks will be handled by staff presently working in existing agencies. This represents the national contribution to the campaign. The major additional staffing will be the Campaign Coordinator and supporting staff.

Oh good, now I know
what needs to be
done, and who could
do it.



Part 2 - Fieldwork

Level	Task	Responsible for Plan	Responsible for implementation
District and town level	a) Establishment of working teams b) operating procedures of teams c) methods of communication with CC d) budget and accounting procedures e) flow chart of Team operation including field work, training etc. f) briefing and debriefing of Village Teams g) training and equipping RLG leaders h) stores i) trouble shooting j) report writing	Field Work and Training Team with District Team	District Team
Village and Ward level	a) Establishment of Village and Ward Teams b) recruitment work c) RLG leader training d) reporting procedures e) transport f) visits to RLGs	Field Work and Training Team with District Team	District Teams, Village Teams, MPs, Headmen, and Councillors
Special Groups (Remote Rural Dwellers)	Mobile system needed	Remote Areas Development Officer and Planning Officer/Rural Development with Fieldwork and Training Team	District Teams
Migrant Labourers	Development of a "fieldwork" system through the mails with appropriate radio support.	Field Work and Training Team	Fieldwork and Training Team

Part 3 – Training

Many people have to be trained in a radio learning group campaign, some simply, some in complex tasks. This table sets out the promoters' first tentative view of what has to be done. It **needs careful study**.

Trainees	Training for the following job	Responsible for content	Responsible for implementation
District and Town Teams	a) committee work b) briefing/debriefing field workers c) training RLG leaders d) organising mobile recruitment	Field Work and Training Team	Field Work and Training Team
Village and Ward Teams	a) village team work b) recruitment work c) training RLG leaders d) campaign visits to RLGs e) report-writing	Field Work and Training Team	District and Town Teams
Mobile Recruitment Staff	a) transport and logistics b) recruitment procedures c) report writing	Field Work and Training Team	District Teams
Participant observers	research and writing function	Evaluation/ Consultation Team	Evaluation/ Consultation Team
Practical task persons	tasks relating to physical level inputs to campaign, eg. concrete slabs, mosquito wire	Action Team	District and Town Councils
Packers and Drivers	tasks such as packing materials for despatch	Campaign Co-ordinator	Campaign Co-ordinator
Coders	coding information on report forms from RLGs	Evaluation/ Consultation Team	Evaluation/ Consultation Team
Translators	translating teaching materials (eg. study guide)	Teaching Materials Team	Teaching Materials Team

Hang on a minute. You also need to be trained!



Part 4 – Campaign Materials

STUDY MATERIALS

radio programmes (10)
study guide (10 chapters)
flip chart illustrations (30)
agenda poster
report forms

RLG LEADER TRAINING MATERIALS

Study guide (abridged version)
radio programmes (10 programmes, each 5 minutes long, on a cassette)
flip chart illustrations
report forms

EQUIPMENT

radio
flipchart

FIELD WORK MATERIALS

Training materials for
a) District and Town Teams
b) Village and Ward Teams
RLG leader recruitment forms
RLG leader visit report forms

ADMINISTRATION FORMS
Planning and reporting forms
Equipment issue forms

EVALUATION/CONSULTATION FORMS
RLG Leader Registration Form
Group Register
Report Forms
Participant Observer Forms



Part 5 – Tasks for the Campaign Co-Ordinator

1. Production of Detailed Plan (for Campaign)
2. Planning and running a pilot Campaign
3. Establishment, support and programming of committees and teams
4. Running a training workshop for the Clean Campaign working teams
5. Communication with District and Town Teams
6. Monitoring and adjusting progress of working teams and District and Town Teams
7. Handling the project finances
8. Keeping Cabinet and Government briefed
9. Publicity
10. Reports to Government, donors and others
11. Arbitration
12. Trouble shooting
13. Pilot
14. Morale



Part 6 – Campaign Co-ordinator's Office

This headquarters office must be able to act as the Campaign secretariat, commissariat and communication centre. It will need

1. Adequate staff – an assistant to the Campaign Co-ordinator, a competent full-time secretary and messenger. In addition, part-time staff will be needed at a number of stages of the Campaign.
2. A filing system for records of
 - a) expenditure
 - b) meetings
 - c) recruitment
 - d) radios
 - e) district and town reports
 - f) distribution of equipment
3. Communication facilities
 - a) radio
 - b) phone
 - c) letter
4. Storage and packing facilities for campaign supplies
5. Transport – a different and very necessary item



Case study 10: A radio school learning group

This note describes one radio school learning group in Colombia and then discusses the organisation briefly (see also Case Study 3).

Adapted from 'Note on radio schools in Colombia' in M Young and others Distance Teaching for the Third World (Routledge, London 1980), pp 149-157.

This is a note on ACPO written after a brief visit to Colombia in April 1977.

The interpretation is of course a purely personal one, and not that of ACPO itself. Rather than embarking right away on any sketch as seen from the head office in Bogotá, it starts in section 1 at the other end, with one 'radio school'. Each family or other group, or even an individual studying on his own, is counted as an 'escuela radiofónica'.

'CAMPESIÑO' MOUNTAIN FAMILY

It was half an hour's walk up a steep hill before we came to a primary school perched on a small parcel of flat land. The altitude was about 8500 feet, not high by the standards of the Andes. Then down again for another half hour, past tiny houses made up of mud bricks with thatched roofs and men ploughing on 45° slopes. Each had a team of two oxen, the lower ox on the slope pushing at an angle to hold the other one up, and the peasant farmer (i.e. 'campesino') leaning with all his weight against the wooden shaft to keep the ploughshare from slipping downways. There were no terraces such as used to exist, according to some accounts. The radio school we were making for was sited in a homestead that looked like many of the others. Two small huts - one thatched, one with corrugated iron - with earthen floors, built on rock platforms, again to prop the buildings up against the slope. A smoke-blackened space at one end of the larger hut for the hearth, the cooking pots and a pile of cane baskets in various stages of construction. One and a half hectares of land. Two pigs. Two rabbits. Some very lively hens.

We were not expected. The mother who greeted us when we branched off the main path wore a blue cracked hat, a whitish shirt and yellow trousers. It turned out she was the 'auxiliar' (or monitor) for that particular radio school. The radio lying on the ground near the baskets was the only product of modern industry to be seen, apart from a poster issued by the Misión Bíblica Católica and another advertising we did not know what. A chair and a stool - the only ones? - were brought out from the house for us to sit on; and we were told a little about the school.

Its meeting place was the ground in front of the house. The members were the other members of the family, who attended as they could: her father and mother, her two brothers who worked in a village some ten miles away and her sister, together with young children from other families who came to get a

good grounding before they entered the primary school. How often and in what numbers they settled around the radio depended on the demands of work. On that day they were not going to listen at the usual evening hour of 5.30 because it was a day for basket-making. An Indian woman under a much broader black hat was squatting on the ground busily splicing canes for the mother and daughter to dye and fabricate. She was an employee to do this particular job.

The mother said they had learnt from the radio school to make a latrine at a distance from the house; to grow vegetables that they had not before; to organise a basketball team which played against others on the pitch at the primary school; to have catechism classes on Sundays and to discuss the Bible. There were 25 other 'auxiliars' in her 'vereda', the neighbourhood made up of similar homesteads grouped along a particular network of mountain paths. They had no regular 'lider' of their own, but had recently been visited by one who was going to arrange a day's course for them on a Sunday in May. Since it was one of her busy days, and darkness was near, we did not stay for long before returning down the (literally) breathtaking hillside to the van. A dog barking and snapping at the moving wheels seemed to fall off the road, and disappeared.

There is probably no typical radio school, neither this nor any other. But the visit to it - if 'it' is the right word - made at least one point very clearly, about the influence of geography. People in Colombia on other mountains are often even more sparse on the ground than they are here, although not so sparse as in Australia, with its outback radio schools. Landowners have taken most of the best land in the valleys, and forced the 'campesinos' to snatch a precarious foothold and a precarious living on the marginal slopes above. In many districts there are no villages nor ordinary schools within scores of miles of each other. In some places the nearest neighbours may be a day's walk. Meeting together is difficult and, when the rains have turned the paths into mud, impossible. Roads are bad. In the western half of a country with over 20 000 000 people the ubiquitous radio is the only regular means of communication with the world beyond the homestead. The radio is the obvious teaching instrument, and the family the obvious educational unit.

GROWTH OF ACPO

We have said ACPO was started by Father Salcedo, and it has retained a link with the Catholic Church ever since. This has been an undoubted source of strength to it in the Andean regions, although sometimes the opposite in coastal areas where anti-clericalism is common. 'Campesinos' who, partly because of the terrain, are not easily organised into collective groups, usually do have a relationship with their parish priest, who is therefore a point of contact for ACPO wherever he is favourable rather than unfavourable to it. He is often the adviser to the young 'líderes' on what to do next and who to get in touch with. The 'líderes' on their journeyings stay with him; there is nowhere else.

If in the main the Church has been supportive, the opposite has applied to the landowners. The descendants, as far as power goes, of the 'conquistadores' who were granted land by the Spanish crown have amassed most of the best land into their 'latifundios', or large estates.

The landed class has remained much as it was, and rarely have its members been favourable to ACPO. Unaware peasants dependent upon their patronage suit them much better. They have sometimes smashed the precious radios, and will manufacture tasks which have to be performed by the peasants they employ at times when they could be listening to the broadcasts.

This being so, the survival and growth of ACPO is all the more remarkable. It is not as if it has had steady support from the government. By its own efforts it has held together, even through the long period (known as 'La Violencia') from 1948 to 1958, when the country was plunged into what was almost civil war. The growth of ACPO has been well chronicled. Today it is the main educational organisation for rural people. Radio Sutatenza, with its transmitters throughout the country, is the best-known radio system in the country, more so than the commercial chains. There are some 1000 people on the payroll in all the divisions, including the local 'líderes'.

Also very much to its credit is the fact that it has inspired similar developments throughout the continent. Many priests and others have come to Colombia and returned home to teach by some variant of the same model. Though none of them is an exact copy, they all have the same concern with primarily illiterate adults, and thence with literacy and basic practical education; they all work through schools which are in effect small listening groups under the guidance of a volunteer; they all employ field organisers, or 'animateurs' as they would be called in francophone Africa; and they all use multi-media methods. Which brings us to our next subject, the instructional materials.

4 THE MULTI-MEDIA APPROACH

The fact that ACPO has applied to itself, and become known under, the general classification of radio school could be misleading. The work is not done by the daily radio programmes alone, vital though these are. The part played by the 'auxiliars' has already been noted. In addition, there is a range of other aids, chief amongst them being the booklets and supporting books. The booklets are constantly referred to by page number in the broadcasts. They are for the eyes while radio is for the ears, the like messages reinforcing each other. There is one booklet for Basic Education in literacy and numeracy, covering the groundwork which has to be mastered before full advantage can be taken of the other five booklets on the five main 'notions' of literacy, numeracy, health, economy and work and spirituality. These booklets ('cartillas') are distributed free to 'campesino' learning groups either by the 'líderes' or through the 'representante parroquial', an additional person in the field organisation who is not involved with instruction, but serves an organisational purpose as distributor of materials - especially important if there is no 'dirigente' or 'líder' in the area. Nor is there any registration fee. Editorial Andes, the publishing division which works with its own large printing works, is also responsible for a series of books incorporated in the Biblioteca del Campesino. These are sold at 5 pesos each (US 14 cents). They are on more specialised subjects such as dressmaking (now the best-seller), vegetable growing, pig keeping, fishing, coffee growing, maize, chickens, sex and marriage, and basic health care.

That is not the end of it. The basic course is reproduced on records for people who cannot listen regularly to the programmes or want to proceed at their own pace. Correspondence is encouraged from 'líderes', 'auxiliars' and families. In 1976, according to Bulletin no. 22 of the ACPO Data Bank, some 17 000 letters were received, which was less than in previous years. Then there is a well-produced weekly newspaper, 'El Campesino', which has the largest circulation of any paper in rural areas. Weekly sales in 1976 were 41 522, again a drop on previous years possibly caused in part by the rise in price from 2 to 3 pesos. The newspaper is distributed through local representatives, some of whom also stock the booklets

and books. The paper contains news, education and entertainment written in such a way as to interest peasants, and prints the radio programmes for that week. It features from time to time within the overall educational programme particular 'campaigns' on soil conservation, nutrition, housing and the like. Altogether, it amounts to a formidable array of resources for learning.

Case study 11: Co-operative group study in Tanzania

The Co-operative Education Centre in Moshi, Tanzania has used correspondence courses, designed for group study, as part of its programme of education for co-operative members. In the early 1970s, the Centre was concerned about the decline of numbers taking part in study groups, particularly as they believed group study was an important method of education for ujamaa (self-help) villages. This article describes a survey of learning groups.

Adapted from 'Report on a survey of group studies' by R Y Mwakatobe in Epistolodidaktika No.2, 1974.

The main objective of the Co-operative Education Centre (CEC) and its Correspondence Institute is to bring education to the grass-roots of the Co-operative Movement and the Ujamaa Villages.

The main features of the country in which this education has to be carried out are a high illiteracy rate, a scattered population, and limited resources of manpower and capital. In view of these limitations, group study, based on correspondence courses produced by CEC and supplemented by radio programmes, is believed to be the best method of reaching the maximum number of members of the Co-operative Movement and Ujamaa (Ujamaa Villagers). Festivals, one-day courses, general meetings and the co-operative gazette are also part of member education.

To support the Centre (the Head Office in Moshi) in running the educational activities all over the country, the Co-operative Education Plan of 1969-74 emphasized the establishment of regional Co-operative Wings.

In accordance with this plan, the number of Co-operative Education Wings has steadily increased. Twelve Wings have now been established, and the Head Office has been strengthened with the posts of the National Study Organizer and two Women Study Organizers. However, the actual work done in the field of group study (ordinary member education) is declining. The statistical reports in the Correspondence Institute indicate a steady rise in number of study groups enrolled in the period 1966-70, and then a sharp decline. If this trend continues the number of study groups will in a year's time fall below the number enrolled in 1966 when CEC started these activities.

The Research — Aims and Objectives

The Correspondence Institute has, therefore, found it urgent to investigate these problems, especially as the Co-operative College/Co-operative Education Centre (CC/CEC) is at the moment planning to launch a study campaign directed at the Ujamaa and based on correspondence courses. It was also considered imperative to get

detailed information about ordinary member education, in view of the proposed handover of all member education activities to the Regional Co-operative Unions.

The Study Groups and how they function

Figures show that the number of study-groups formed is rapidly declining, and that at the same time an increasing percentage of the groups who start studying give up before completing their studies.

The average number of participants in each study group is eight. The present number of participants is between 2,000 and 3,000. Only about 0.37% of the members of the Co-operative movement have taken advantage of the study opportunities offered by the CEC. If the number of Ujamaa (adults only) is taken into account, the proportion is only 0.23%.

Types of participants

The Co-operative triangle is made up of three categories of people: committeemen, staff and ordinary members. It is the aim of Co-operative Education to see that all these categories are offered education. Whereas both Halmashauri (committeemen) and staff are offered other types of courses, group study is the only way for ordinary members to receive education. Education opportunities for ordinary members are therefore very limited. Our findings also show that almost no women participate in group study. (All interviewed except one were men.)

Types of courses chosen

At the moment the Correspondence Institute offers the following courses to study groups:

- Kazi za Halmashauri (Duties of the committee)
- Ujamaa Vijijini (Ujamaa Villages)
- Basic Economy
- Consumer Society Courses
- How to Read a Balance Sheet.

All courses are available in Swahili. Kazi za Halmashauri is the most common course, and is chosen by 54% of the groups. Basic Economy was chosen by 23%, Ujamaa Vijijini was chosen by 5% and 5% chose the other courses.

Study Leaders

During the last two years Co-operative Education Centre's reports show that about 1,200 study leaders have been trained in group study techniques in courses of 1-3 weeks' duration.

The study leaders were mainly recruited from the group of Halmashauri (60%), to a lesser extent from the staff (30%) and very seldom from ordinary members (10%).

Study Methods

The group-study method is based on individual study of the text

book (correspondence course) and discussions in the group. The members meet regularly to discuss the content of the course and to prepare joint answers to the main questions, which are sent in to the Correspondence Institute for correction and comments. The duration of the course should depend on a joint decision of the study group, i.e. the study group can divide each study unit into smaller or bigger parts, or repeat certain parts of the units. The speed with which the course is studied thus depends on the participants themselves.

All categories interviewed indicated that they found the study method very good, especially in a population having a high illiteracy rate, as those members who are unable to read can benefit from those who can.

The majority of the participants of the study groups interviewed (78%) claimed that they benefitted very much from the discussion in the group, as this helped them to a better understanding of the text through exchange of ideas and view-points.

Study Material

The courses offered by the Correspondence Institute were regarded by 45% of the drop-out students as well as by educational personnel as being too long and too difficult for self-tuition in groups. Also the courses are out-dated. Three-quarters of the Wing Staff wanted better layout and more stimulation for group discussions in the text. There is a lack of continuity in the course-programme — for instance a group which has completed Kazi za Halmashauri cannot choose the same topic on a more advanced level as the next course. It was also found that the students regarded the courses as too theoretical, and thought that more emphasis should be given to practical application.

Problems faced by the Study Groups

The general problem when dealing with adult education is the lack of understanding of the need for education and its use. Also many students believe that education should be free: if a course is financially demanding on them, their interest decreases immediately. Interest also decreases if a course does not lead to any employment.

Of the participants interviewed, 57% had been informed about the course at a meeting in the society/village. The information given to the Wajamaa and members about the courses available is poor. Often only a single course is announced, and no proper information is given about its content and aims, or how it is going to be studied. The information does not, therefore, encourage members and Wajamaa villages to educate themselves.

Study leaders have mainly been recruited from the group of Halmashauri and staff. They are part of the local leadership. However, they are not permanent leaders, and sometimes are not re-elected. If the Halmashauri are not re-elected they often lose interest in their studies. This is especially discouraging when they are study-leaders.

Also the study leaders are too often not familiar enough with the content of the course to be able to assist the group-members in solving problems. As there is no one else in the local areas to whom the group can turn for information and proper guidance, as there is almost a total lack of follow-up of the study-groups from the educational staff, and, as the study material is not well organized methodologically for self-tuition, too many study groups give up and/or are delayed in their studies for such a long period that their

interest is lost. As seen above, the drop-out rate calculated from the Correspondence Institute records has greatly increased during the last two years; of those interviewed 56% had not finished or had dropped out. (The number of drop-outs is not, however, representative in this sample.)

The organization of the education system and how it works

Although the building up of efficient co-operative units and Ujamaa villages is of great importance in the country, the co-operative education system works surprisingly independently of other adult education bodies and even the administrative, ministerial and political bodies. In Tanzania there is an extremely well-designed and adequately manned political and administrative organization, from the national level through regions, districts, divisions and wards down to the village level. Only rarely do the co-operative educators work with these bodies to take education to the members and the Ujamaa villagers.

In the co-operative education system there is no permanent organization below regional level responsible for carrying out education among members of the co-operative movement and the Ujamaa villages, apart from some exceptional cases on the district level. Nor is there any proper base for the organization and its activities in the local areas. The co-operative education system is created from the top, and not by its members, and the educational activities are organized from above and passed down to the members.

Not only is the co-operative education system isolated and without base among the members; it also has some organizational problems which not only affect present activities, but will definitely affect future activities as well, in view of the plan for decentralization.

Within the organization of the co-operative education system, two different bodies are responsible for member education: the Co-operative Union of Tanganyika (CUT) with its co-operative Education Secretaries; and the Co-operative Education Centre (CEC) with its co-operative Education Wings staff.

Their working conditions in the local areas are very different. The two bodies, the Unions' Education Secretaries (UES) and the Wing Staff (WS), have different management. The WS are to a high degree independent educational bodies in the regions, responsible only to the management of CEC, which is an entirely educational organization, whereas the UES are directly responsible to and dependent on the managers of the Co-operative Unions, which are mainly marketing organizations. In several cases it was found that education was given a low or no priority by the Union Managers, and in some cases it was claimed that the Managers directly obstructed education.

Most of the resources for co-operative education (manpower and capital) are used for residential courses for staff in primary societies, and for Halmashauri in societies and Ujamaa villages.

This is because there is strong pressure from the political and governmental side for the co-operative educators to speed up education of these categories of people in order to raise the level of knowledge among the responsible and decision-making members of the population.

It was also found that it was much more convenient to arrange residential courses at the central course-sites, because this did not require the constant travelling demanded by the supervision of ordinary members studying by themselves.

The informal interviews revealed that many of the co-operative educators felt that they lacked knowledge of teaching adults, especially those with a high illiteracy rate. This is aggravated by the fact that the study material used is not effective, as it is not produced for students who are illiterate, or who have recently learnt to read and are not used to studying.

Part of the reason for the poor results with regard to ordinary member education is the quality of the study material. The material produced by CEC is not really suitable for self-tuition, for a number of reasons indicated above. This has, however, already been realised by the Correspondence Institute, and steps are being taken to improve the study material. At the moment various editorial committees are working on updating the existing courses.

The research also revealed that the communication between CEC and the regions was poor, especially when study material and money were required by the regions. Lack of proper service from CEC Head Office was considered one of the main obstacles to the group study campaigns. Often CEC was so slow in answering that study material arrived too late, or staff in the regions wasted time and money travelling to collect the necessary items from Moshi.

Conclusion

The research was carried out because of the rapidly declining enrolment figures for group study by correspondence since 1971. As group study is the only way to bring education to the majority of ordinary members and committeemen in the co-operative movement and the Ujamaa villages, a decline in the enrolment hits the very base of co-operative and Ujamaa development.

Our findings revealed that it is no longer realistic to talk about member education in the co-operative societies and Ujamaa villages. Fewer than one per cent of the members participate in Co-operative Education Centre studies, and more and more are dropping out before finishing their studies.

The main reasons for this are:

- that co-operative education is directed from the top;
- that the organization is concentrated in Moshi and at regional level, with no proper organization at district, ward and village level;
- that the co-operative educators do not collaborate with other institutions dealing with adult education;
- that activities often lack proper planning, so that they are influenced more by pressure from outside the co-operative education system than by any policy of the co-operative educators themselves;
- that co-operative educators expect the few educated members of the local leadership to pass on to the uneducated the knowledge they have gained. However, if this is to be effective, a systematic approach both in methodology and organization will be necessary;
- that there is a lack of proper follow-up of student activities, which is due to lack of mobility of the educators

- and to lack of efficient recording of the study groups;
- that there is a lack of knowledge about how to initiate and organize education activities among the masses, and about how to teach adults;
 - that education in reality is given a very low priority by the majority of the co-operative unions' managers;
 - that the CEC-produced study material needs improvement,
 - that the administration of the services from the headquarters in Moshi does not function well;
 - that ordinary members lack an understanding of the use of educating themselves, but that they are sensitive to motivation from educators;
 - that the performance of the study leaders is poor.

Case study 12: Group leaders for the Namibian Extension Unit

The Namibian Extension Unit was set up by SWAPO, in association with the International Extension College and the Commonwealth Secretariat, in 1981. Its first priority was to provide education for refugees from Namibia in refugee camps. As there were few teachers in the camps, it was agreed that young people and adults would study together in groups by following correspondence courses, under the guidance of a study group leader. A group leader's function was to organise the learning group and help its members to learn, not to teach them. It was assumed that study group leaders would themselves have had only a limited formal education. The group leaders' handbook, from which this example is taken, was therefore produced as part of a scheme to train them in their work.

Adapted from Group Leaders' Manual by Namibian Extension Unit (NEU 1981).

INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE

1. This is a course for study group leaders of the Namibian Extension Unit (NEU). It has two parts.

The first part is the Group Leaders' Training Handbook. It teaches you how to organise and lead study groups. It is found immediately after this introduction.

The second part is the Group Leaders' Lesson Notes for particular courses. These are found in the special group leaders' copies of the NEU's courses.

Both parts of the course can be used in two ways. Sometimes trainee group leaders come together for a week or two weeks to be trained. Other times group leaders have to learn their job by themselves. They can study both parts of this course by themselves. It is important that trainee group leaders sometimes meet fellow group leaders and discuss, while they are studying.

2. What should you learn from this course?

By the end of this course trainee group leaders should be able to do the following things:

(a) Lead study group learning activities:

- lead discussion groups
- lead learning drills and exercises
- encourage and help group members to learn both inside and outside the classroom
- show group members how to use the courses
- show group members how to seek more help in their studies

(b) Organise and look after study group learning activities:

- obtain and give to group members the equipment, books and papers needed by study groups
- take and keep proper records of student progress and of how the course works
- use and look after course equipment, books and other materials
- write reports to the NEU and to its tutors
- recommend to tutors how to improve study group work

3. How the Namibian Extension Unit works

The Namibian Extension Unit is part of the SWAPO Department of Education. It exists to give Namibians in Angola and Zambia a chance to improve their education. It uses distance teaching methods. It organises teaching and learning even when there are no teachers present with the students. To do so it produces and gives to students printed courses and sound cassettes. It organises groups of students to study these courses. It trains study group leaders to help students to study in this way.

In addition to courses, cassettes and study groups, it arranges for tutors to mark and supervise work done by its students.

The leaders of these study groups are not teachers. They are workers and students like their fellow group members. But they are very important people for the system. Without them the study groups cannot work. Their members cannot study properly. The leaders organise the groups and make sure they work properly. They also lead the learning activities and help the group members to learn. These are difficult jobs.

Group leaders must be trained how to do them.

They must learn how to use the courses and the cassettes.

They must learn to lead exercises and drills.

They must learn what to do with students' work.

They must learn how to help students to study.

4. What is in this course and how does it work?

This course teaches you how to do all these things. It helps you to learn how to become a successful study group leader.

The course consists of four activities.

THE HANDBOOK

4.1 First you receive and study this handbook. It has five chapters, or units.

The five units are:

UNIT 1 HOW TO LEAD STUDY GROUPS

UNIT 2 HELP AND ADVICE FOR YOU AND YOUR STUDENTS

UNIT 3 STUDENT WORK

UNIT 4 ORGANISING AND RUNNING STUDY GROUPS

UNIT 5 LOOKING FOR MORE INFORMATION

Each unit gives you information about your job as a group leader. It gives you hints and ideas about how to do it. There are examples from the Basic English and Basic Maths courses. These show how to apply the ideas to a situation you will face in these courses. There are also exercises and assignments which give you a chance to practise the skills you need.

THE LESSON NOTES

4.2 Secondly you receive a special group leaders' copy of the courses you are leading. These special copies have some pages of Group Leaders' Lesson Notes at the beginning of each unit or workbook. These notes tell you in detail what to do in each lesson.

TRAINING COURSES

4.3 Most of you will receive both these materials at a Group Leaders' Training Course. These are short courses where several group leaders are trained together. While you are on the training course you spend all your time learning to lead study groups. You work through the handbook

together; you work through some of the lesson notes; you prepare yourself for a few lessons; and you practise the jobs you have to do and the skills you are learning.

SELF-STUDY

Some of you may be appointed as group leaders when there is no Group Leaders' Training Course. You will have to work through the handbook and the notes by yourselves. Whenever possible you should discuss each unit with fellow group leaders or with an NEU tutor or organiser.

TUTORIAL MEETINGS

- 4.4 Group leaders also meet the tutor in charge of them every two weeks. These meetings bring you and your fellow group leaders together with your tutor to talk about your progress. You prepare together for the next few meetings with your groups. You talk about what has happened in your group during the last few lessons. You help each other to solve problems and difficulties you have met. The meetings help you to learn how to become a good group leader.

Good luck with this course. Good luck as a group leader.

Case study 13: Study centres at the British Open University

At the Open University (see also Case Study 1) students learn by mainly by means of correspondence and broadcasts, but short residential summer schools are compulsory for many courses. Students also may attend a study centre in the evening about once a week, but do not have to.

In their first year students take one or more foundation courses, on arts or mathematics or the social sciences, for example, and go on to take higher and more specialised courses in later years. While working on their foundation courses, they have a local tutor-counsellor whose job is both to tutor them - giving help on the subject-matter of their course - and to advise them - counselling them about study generally. On more advanced courses they have a tutor whose job is to tutor them on that specific course. The tutor-counsellors are part-time employees of the Open University. Pauline Kirk, who wrote this article, is one of them.

Adapted from 'Study centres: some impressions' by Pauline Kirk in Teaching at a distance No. 16, 1979.

Since the year of its inception I have served as a course tutor, counsellor, tutor and tutor-counsellor with the Open University and, having a highly mobile husband, I am now attached to my sixth study centre in my third Open University region. As I have also visited a number of other centres within recent years, I am prompted to consider why some seem to have a happy atmosphere and to be well attended, while others do not seem so attractive to staff or students; if as it seems from my experience, a local meeting place is of great value, I wonder whether part-time staff can be given any advice on how to develop the kind of study centre atmosphere and facilities which will be of most assistance to their students.

What is a study centre?

The *BA Degree Handbook 1979*

tells applicants:

Wherever the concentration of students in a particular area justifies it, we have set up a study centre. In all, there are about 260 study centres. Study centres are usually based in local colleges, schools or other educational establishments. They are open on weekday evenings and sometimes on Saturdays as well. They provide facilities for students to meet with one another for discussion and mutual help and for group and individual discussions with tutor-counsellors and course tutors. You are under no obligation to attend your study centre but most of our students do prefer to undertake part of their learning together and so avoid the sense of isolation that other correspondence students often feel.

Thus, while in a sense a study centre can be any place where two or three Open University students are gathered together, officially it usually consists of a suite of rooms in a school, college or other educational institution; it serves a localized area wherever there are sufficient students to warrant the cost involved, and acts as a focal point rather than a formal place of learning, since attendance is purely voluntary. As well as serving as a base for face-to-face tuition, it provides a range of resources, most commonly a television and a set of radio tapes of foundation course broadcasts and facilities for replaying these, and in some instances, the use of a library for private study and reference, a common room and provision for refreshments. In addition there is a cupboard containing a set of units for each foundation course together with various supplementary materials, and a notice board on which details of forthcoming tutorials or Open University events can be announced, rooms requested in advance, and internal advertisements and messages displayed. The *Handbook* comments, perhaps rather idealistically, 'Study centres are the base for a considerable variety of student activity. Students on a common course come to know each other and to arrange to meet in "self-help" groups or for social/educational sessions in or out of the centre.

It is this latter aspect which in my experience is the hardest to run successfully. All the above facilities may be there, and yet students may make very little use of them, and very little 'student activity' originates from the centre, even though the local pub is thriving as a meeting place for Open University personnel.

Study centres are therefore a very important aspect of the Open University system, yet there is no guarantee that there will be any students regularly visiting them.

The successful study centre

If one measures the success of a study centre in terms of attendance and student activity, there seem to me to be certain characteristics common to all the 'successful' ones I have visited:

- 1 students feel sufficiently attracted to attend as regularly as possible for tuition and counselling;
- 2 a significant number of them are willing to take part in self-help groups there and to come in on their own to make use of the facilities provided;
- 3 out of this, a sense of identity develops so that local students regard the centre as 'theirs'; it becomes a social as well as an academic meeting place with students arriving early to talk to each other before tutorials and lingering afterwards. Extra-curricula activities are suggested by the most active, and are sufficiently well attended to encourage similar ventures.
- 4 in general there is a feeling of busyness and well-used facilities most evenings.

The difficulties in establishing such an atmosphere

Since the study centre is basically only a number of rooms in someone else's building, the actual physical conditions may vary enormously and may make the establishment of a relaxed, welcoming atmosphere very difficult. The rooms may be cold, smelling of chalk and football boots, and separated from each other by several flights of stairs, which are a nightmare for the handicapped and elderly. There may be constant distraction from other classes still meeting or from external noises, and material used by day-time teachers may be lying about or covering the whole blackboard, with a 'please leave' note attached. The location of the building itself may be significant, for, if the centre serves a

locality in which there is a large number of Open University students and is centrally placed within that area, it will have a greater potential attendance than one in a sparsely populated rural region.

The availability and pattern of public transport can also be important. If the centre is blessed by frequent services to its major catchment areas, it ought to stand a better chance of success than one

on the outskirts of town, with a temperamental bus service into the city centre and no direct link to the suburbs on the other side.

Even so mundane a factor as the provision of adequate parking space can be significant, particularly if the centre is situated in a college offering several other evening classes, or on a busy street.

There may also be misunderstandings with the authorities in charge of the building in which the University is a guest, particularly when day-time students are in recess.

Such situations are nobody's fault; they are inevitable when several different bodies are using the one building, but they make it difficult to develop any sense of Open University identity.

Some practical suggestions

Given such problems, how can an unprepossessing set of rooms and a notice-board be turned into a thriving study centre? It seems to me a great deal depends on the initiative and determination of the local tutor-counsellor. He or she is in the centre one night a week for at least twenty weeks a year, and is on the spot to organize activities and resolve any problems as they arise. In a sense the tutor-counsellor is host for the evening and possesses a freedom and autonomy which would be envied by most other teachers.

The local student will judge the value of his centre and the whole University staff by the one or two part-timers he meets each week. Putting it crudely, it is the part-timer's responsibility to ensure that students in his locality get as fair a deal as those in the rest of the country, and if his sessions are helpful and stimulating and his manner welcoming, his foundation students will express their appreciation by attending as regularly as they can.

Apart from such general professional responsibilities as I have discussed, I have found there are some very basic steps a tutor-counsellor can take to make his centre more attractive. An introductory letter inviting (expecting?) students to come to the centre and outlining the facilities available seems to increase the initial attendance, and subsequent mailings giving details of special functions and tutorial dates and topics helps to prevent students turning up on nights when there is no tutor-counsellor present – understandably exasperating on a winter evening. If nothing else, such duplicated letters provide an opportunity to keep in regular contact with students and with space for a personal note, can enable the tutor-counsellor to check on the outcome of past problems or to query the non-submission of work. Encouraging foundation students to watch the television programmes together if the timing is convenient, or to make use of tapes of programmes they have missed can build up future habits, and television groups often turn into self-help groups as the year goes by.

The provision of coffee before or after tutorials and continuing students' meetings enables students to relax after their journey and to meet each other informally. In the past much of my counselling has been done during this time as I have stated on each term's programme that 7.00 to 7.30 p.m. is set aside for 'coffee and a chat', and after a few moments mingling, rather like a bride at a reception, I have found myself drawn apart to discuss one or two particular problems.

There are other even more mundane measures one can take. For instance, I have found it pays to be determined with the furniture. Pulling tables and chairs about at the first tutorial to create a cosier grouping within the scholastic barn sets up an expectation of informality, and students have usually laid the room out themselves afterwards without my requesting them to do so. It is advisable however to see that they put everything back in place before the caretaker comes; after all, it is caretakers who run further education, not academics.

Scrupulous care in the booking of rooms can prevent potentially disruptive misunderstandings too, while the care, and replacement of, any equipment belonging to the host institution is surely a matter of courtesy.

Finally, higher-level students seem to need special attention over and above that normally expected by the University if they are to remain connected with the study centre during the later years of their degrees. Such a connection seems to me valuable for them as a way of avoiding the sense of isolation which greater distance from their course tutor and colleagues inevitably produces, and important to the centre itself. Logically, continuing students should be the driving force on study centre committees and readily available for new students to consult, yet in practice they are often completely missing from local activities. During my time at Southend and Reading centres, however, they did prove willing to come in to see films or listen to guest speakers, when traditional social functions were poorly attended by them. It seems Open University students have so little time they feel guilty at attending non-academic gatherings and like to feel that any evening they spend away from domestic duties or study is directly furthering their degree.

Case study 14: Study centres in Botswana

The Botswana Extension College was established by the International Extension College for the Ministry of Education in Botswana. It has used correspondence, radio and some face-to-face study for both formal and non-formal education. Its formal courses were for adults, but at secondary level. In order to support the correspondence and radio teaching, BEC has experimented with study centres, which students attend in the evening. This note by Solomon Inqail, Director of BEC from 1975 to 1979, discusses the work of such centres.

Adapted from an unpublished report by Solomon Inqail.

The study centres evolved to supplement the education of the students, and thus help to fulfil our commitment to three-way teaching. They were not seen as a means of providing face-to-face group-tutoring. The thinking behind the study centres goes something like this: the students need a well lit and comfortable place to study. At home, poor lighting, the presence of children and other members of the family, blaring radio, tend to distract the student from his studies. Learning through correspondence is not easy. People feel lonely and isolated. The study centre might help to overcome these feelings. It might give the student the feeling that he is a member of a much larger community. The knowledge that there are others with similar problems could be a source of comfort. Furthermore, the presence of tutors, and their ability to respond to students' queries on the spot might encourage the student to continue with his studies. When a student has to wait for the mail to get answers to his questions, the delay can be frustrating and may push the student towards dropping out. This is especially true if the answer that he gets after a long wait fails to clear up the problem, which is not unusual. Individual face-to-face tutoring can reduce this problem.

The first study centre was started in Gaborone, the capital. A classroom was made available on the outskirts of the town, far from where most of the local people lived. This was an unfortunate choice. Attendance was very good at first, but it started to fluctuate almost immediately. Students were saying that the place was too far away. But, more than that, the students' unexpressed needs for direct teaching were not being met, and this discouraged many from coming. We also soon realised that, with the exception of the odd few, students do not ask for help. The tutor who took the initiative to go around and ask each student how she/he was coping inevitably had his hands full for the evening. Students had many problems. Was this culturally influenced? Do people never speak unless spoken to? We do not know, but it does look like it. As attendance fell to a very low level the centre had to be closed, and study centre work in Gaborone was temporarily suspended.

Some time later a BEC study centre was opened in Francistown. This centre hit the right note almost right from the start. The tutor in charge was quick to realise that people wanted some form of teaching. However, we had to ensure that it did not turn into another evening class, and thereby negate the idea of private study through distance-teaching methods. Group-tutoring was limited to topics that the students found difficult to understand, and was to be conducted for not more than the first half hour of the two-hour study period. The rest of the time was to be devoted to private study, and tutoring of individuals. This idea was soon taken up as a positive development.

Very soon the Gaborone centre was resumed in more centrally located premises. Group-teaching on selected topics for the first half hour became an integral feature, and part-time tutors and staff were briefed on the need to ask students individually if they needed help. Topics for group tutoring were suggested both by students and the marker-tutors. The tutors and the student advisor met to outline the work for a given period. With more experience study centres were also falling into the school rhythm, closing when schools were on vacation. This ensured minimum student frustration due to the absence of tutors on holiday. It also gave the student advisor and other BEC staff, who played a major role, a breather.

Subsequently study centres were opened in several other places. They were supervised by adult educators, or by staff from co-operating organisations.

The primary consideration in starting a centre was the size of the student body in a given locality. Equally important, however, was the presence of a secondary school, and the willingness of the principal and his staff to act as part-time tutors. In the absence of a local representative, there ought to be a body that is willing to take on the organisation, the day-to-day supervision, and the keeping and transmitting of tutor attendance records for payment purposes. Without such a body it is virtually impossible to run a study centre. Finally, a suitable meeting place, with adequate lighting, is imperative. Where there is no power supply provision for a hurricane lamp should be made.

In addition to providing an atmosphere conducive to study, and the necessary face-to-face tutoring, a study centre can serve as a place where many other things happen. Some of these things are: the orientation of new students, on how to study by correspondence; information on radio programmes, library provision, examination entry, and forthcoming weekend courses; reference books and tapes of past radio programmes with the necessary playback equipment are made available for on-the-spot use by students.

HQ staff play an important role in the running of the Gaborone centre. The student adviser makes a quarterly rota of staff, listing who will be in charge when, of the study centre. She/he is responsible for opening and closing of the study centre, taking names of part-time staff who are in attendance and passing this to the student adviser who compiles monthly records for payment purposes. The staff member is also responsible for taking attendance. In addition she works as a tutor and helps students with their work. Finally, she will act as a link between students and the student adviser, carrying all student requests and questions that need the latter's attention.

There has been no study of the cost of running a study centre in Botswana, although the information is available. Most centres meet three times a week, and usually have more than one person in attendance. One problem that has not been resolved is whether students should pay for attendance. It was originally proposed that BEC students attending a study centre would pay P0.50 per month. To my knowledge no such fee was ever collected.

Case study 15: Study centres in Nigeria

The Correspondence and Open Studies Unit (COSU) of the University of Lagos was established to provide degree courses, initially in science education and business studies. Courses, which used correspondence as the main means of teaching, were developed at Lagos but made available throughout Nigeria. COSU therefore wanted to establish study centres throughout Nigeria in order to provide face-to-face support for its students. This involved co-operation with other institutions of higher education, as described in this note by the head of the unit, The Reverend Canon 'Yinka Olumide. (See also Case Study 6.)

Adapted from 'COSU in perspective', paper presented by Y Olumide to the Committee of Deans and the Senate of the University of Lagos. This reflects the position in 1977; there have been many changes since.

The study centre, up till now, is not a separate and self-contained institution. It is housed in an existing educational establishment - a university, an advanced teachers' college, a college of technology, an existing university extension centre, etc. It exists by the kind permission and through the co-operation of that body. It should remain like that.

The purpose of a study centre is to provide opportunities, at regular intervals, for students to meet fellow students and tutors; and to have access to various study-support facilities. It consists of rooms made available in the evenings or at week-ends, in which COSU students can meet, with or without a tutor, or can sit and study by themselves. It contains some additional reference and textbooks, some of which can be borrowed, cassette tape recorders, recorded cassettes of COSU broadcast programmes, and other recorded material. Any other print or electronic aids which are relevant will be made available at the centres from time to time. It is a place in which students can meet, individually or in groups, with part-time tutors in the subjects they are studying. Such meetings are pre-arranged and usually follow a fixed time-table. The students whose courses require practical and experimental work are provided with access to laboratory and practical facilities. The study centre is the distribution point for course materials and student assignments.

The unit, in the light of postal services and security, runs a regular monthly courier service from Lagos to the study centres to which the students are assigned. The students collect their materials from, and deliver their completed written assignments to the centres. The assignments are addressed and returned by the same courier service to Lagos.

The number of COSU students at the respective study centres varies from place to place. This in turn affects the frequency with which the centres can open and the number of tutors employed.

Study centres have been established in fourteen places, and another should function with effect from the academic year 1977/78.

The study centres have their meetings mostly on Saturday which is no longer a teaching day in universities. It is a sacrifice for those involved to commit themselves to this assignment once every two, three or four weeks. The sacrifice will be greater as the course progresses; there will be five classes for each subject, as the course is expected to take the average student five years.

Lecturers in both Lagos University and other institutions of higher learning are paid for services rendered for the regular study centre meetings. There is a supervisor for science education and another for business administration/accounting. There are also tutors for each subject area.

The unit will soon have the third intake of students, so that there will be three different groups of students, and in two years' time there will be five groups of students, as the course is spread over five years for the average student. This will mean an increase in the number of tutors and in the frequency of the meetings. The correspondence tutoring fees will therefore increase.

Case study 16: The National Extension College

The National Extension College is a nonprofit college which provides correspondence courses in Britain. Until 1981, when it bought a computer, its records were kept by hand. This note, prepared from an earlier study by IEC, describes the system.

The National Extension College record system is based on four key documents: an enrolment card, a student's course card, a ledger card and a fees card.

Enrolment card (example 1): A blank card is included in each Guide to courses which the College sends to people who enquire about enrolling on its courses. The student himself completes this card, giving details about himself and the courses he wants to take, and sends this to NEC with his fees, or the first instalment of them. This card is then kept by NEC as the basic record card on that student. Each time a student sends work for marking, the marks are entered by NEC on this card.

Student's course card (example 2): This card is to help communication between the tutor and the student. There is a separate card for each course on which the student wants to enrol. Each time the student does an assignment, he sends this card with it to his tutor. The tutor puts his marks and comments on the card, as well as writing fuller comments on the assignment, and returns the card and assignment to the student, through the NEC office.

Ledger card: This is just a financial record, showing what the student has paid and what he still owes the college. It stays in the NEC office so that the office can ensure students do pay all their fees.

Fee card (example 3): NEC sends this to the student. It shows the student how much he has paid in fees. If a student is paying by instalments, it shows when they are due. The student sends this card to NEC each time he pays an instalment of his fees. NEC then transfers information from this card to its own ledger card, and returns the fees card to the student as a receipt.

NEC enrolment procedure

The following is a fuller account of NEC's enrolment procedure for those particularly concerned with record and enrolment processes.

1. A fairly complex information system is necessary to run an efficient

correspondence organisation. The NEC system is described below but the following is a justification for its apparent complexity.

2. One can distinguish a number of different information needs and relate NEC documents to them.

3. The students need to know:

3.1 about his own progress through each course - so he has a student's course card (shuttle card) which passes from him, to his tutor and back again through NEC, with each piece of work that he does. Information from this shuttle card about students' marks is transcribed to the student's enrolment card each time it passes through the office so that NEC has a permanent record of each student's work.

3.2 about his tutor: not only his name and address but also something about him; so NEC sends a duplicated note about your tutor telling the student about the tutor's background and interests.

3.3 about his fees: what he has paid and what he still has to pay - hence the fees card.

4. The tutor needs to know:

4.1 about his students. NEC has not worked out a satisfactory way of informing tutors direct about their students, so this is left to the student who sends a personal details form with his first batch of work to his tutor.

4.2 about his student's previous work, each time he receives a worksheet, hence the student's course card;

4.3 how much he has earned and how much to claim for postage, so he has a tutor's pay advice (sent by NEC to tutor) and a tutor's expense sheet (sent by him to NEC).

5. The office needs to know:

5.1 daily cash income, recorded in cash book;

5.2 details of student fees paid in full or by instalment, entered on ledger card. These are filed in the finance section;

5.3 the courses' levels, expected dates of examination and work done by the student once he starts work, together with background information about the student. All this is recorded by the student himself from the enrolment card which is then filed numerically and forms the basic document about each student;

5.4 the source (e.g. advertisement) of each enrolment: thus enrolment cards are coded before being sent to enquirers and a promotion register is kept showing how many enrolments have come from which source;

5.5 which students are allocated to which tutor, recorded on a tutor's list of students;

- 5.6 how to identify a student from his number alone (so there is a register of numbers showing student's name against each) or from his name alone (so there is a card index, made from addressograph plates and filed in alphabetical order);
- 5.7 addresses of all students, for general mailing, so the college makes addressograph plates;
- 5.8 about any correspondence with the student - put in students' files;
- 5.9 about the regular pattern of enrolment for each course - so a weekly enrolment card is kept.
6. Office procedures are as follows:
7. Cashier
 - 7.1 Enter money in cash book.
 - 7.2 Detach money from enrolment card and correspondence.
 - 7.3 Complete fees card and (for instalment payments only) ledger card.
 - 7.4 Pass all documents on to:
8. Registration
 - 8.1 Allocate student a number and print this on:
 - enrolment card
 - fees card
 - ledger card
 - students' course card
 - appropriate tutor's list of students
 - student file (with student's name)
 - register of numbers (with student's name)
 - 8.2 Allocate student to tutor(s)
 - 8.3 Put together for despatch to student:
 - yellow fees card
 - students' course card
 - welcoming letter
 - note about tutor(s)
 - 8.4 Enter enrolment in weekly enrolment report
 - 8.5 Pass all documents to:
9. Addressograph and Despatch
 - 9.1 Type addressograph label and put address on:
 - large envelope for lessons
 - enrolment card
 - fees card

ledger card (if paying by instalment)
student's course card
index card for alphabetical card index of students

9.2 Take out necessary lessons and send to student

lessons
student's course card
yellow fees card
welcoming letter
note about tutor(s)
students' handbook

9.3 Enter number of enrolments per code in promotion register

9.4 File enrolment card in student record drums

9.5 File index card in alphabetic index of students

9.6 File ledger card in financial files

9.7 File addressograph card in number order

9.8 File student file in number order

Do not fold this form
Registration No.

ENROLMENT FORM

Please complete in BLOCK LETTERS

Mr Mrs Miss	Surname	First Names	Date of Birth	
Address		Telephone No	Occupation	
For some courses it would help us to know if you have any relevant qualifications. Examinations passed (if NONE please write NONE) School Certificate, CSE or 'O' level, higher certificate 'A' level			Date	Grade (if known)
Other qualifications			Examining board (if known)	
Course title		Course number	Course fee	Any exam date
1			£	
2			£	
3			£	
World of Science kit			£	
If previously enrolled with NEC please give student number		☐ *I wish to pay full fees now and enclose cheque/PO's	£	Total cash fee
		☐ *I wish to pay by instalments and enclose deposit of *and agree to pay monthly instalments of	£	Deposit as per instalment table
For Office use only		☐ *I have completed the enclosed bankers order form		
		☐ *I have no bank account and wish to pay monthly by PO's		
		Signature		

* Inc.2 or delete as appropriate

Please make cheques and PO's payable to NEC Trust Ltd

Jan / Feb / Mar / Apr / May / Jun / Jul / Aug / Sep / Oct / Nov / Dec

Plate

Special instructions

Course	Course	Course	Course
Tutor	Tutor	Tutor	Tutor
DT	DT	DT	DT
1 A	1 A	1 A	1 A
2 B	2 B	2 B	2 B
3 C	3 C	3 C	3 C
4 D	4 D	4 D	4 D
5 E	5 E	5 E	5 E
6 F	6 F	6 F	6 F
7 G	7 G	7 G	7 G
8 H	8 H	8 H	8 H
9 I	9 I	9 I	9 I
10 J	10 J	10 J	10 J
11 K	11 K	11 K	11 K
12 L	12 L	12 L	12 L
13 M	13 M	13 M	13 M
14 N	14 N	14 N	14 N
15 O	15 O	15 O	15 O
16 P	16 P	16 P	16 P
17 Q	17 Q	17 Q	17 Q
18 R	18 R	18 R	18 R
19 S	19 S	19 S	19 S
20 T	20 T	20 T	20 T

Example 1 : Enrolment card

NATIONAL EXTENSION COLLEGE

STUDENT'S COURSE CARD

ASSIGNMENT	TO BE COMPLETED BY STUDENT		TO BE COMPLETED BY TUTOR			NEC
	Target date for completed assignment	Actual date sent to tutor	Date sent to NEC	MARK	REMARKS	Date returned
Diagnostic Test						
A						
B						
C						
D						
E						
F						
G						
H						

Student's
Name
and
Address

S
S
S

Student's number _____

Course number _____

Course title _____

Date of enrolment _____

NATIONAL EXTENSION COLLEGE
18 BROOKLANDS AVENUE CAMBRIDGE

Telephone (0223) 63486

MR/MRS/MISS _____ DATE _____
YOUR STUDENT NUMBER IS _____

PLEASE QUOTE THIS NUMBER ON ALL CORRESPONDENCE

CASH FEE FOR COURSE (S)	£	_____
INSTALMENT CHARGE	£	_____
TOTAL	£	_____
RECEIVED ON ENROLMENT	£	_____
BALANCE DUE	£	_____
MONTHLY INSTALMENT	£	_____
FIRST PAYMENT DUE	£	_____

DO NOT DETACH

INSTALMENT CARD

DATE	£	P	DATE	INITIALS	£	P	DATE	INITIALS
BALANCE DUE ON ENROLMENT								
£					£			

Remittances should be made by cheque, money/postal order payable to NATIONAL EXTENSION COLLEGE and crossed.

They should be sent to FEES OFFICE, NATIONAL EXTENSION COLLEGE,
18 BROOKLANDS AVENUE, CAMBRIDGE CB2 2HN with this card.

Example 3 : Fees card

Case study 17: The Department of Non-Formal Education, Botswana

The Botswana Extension College (BEC) was set up in 1973 with responsibilities to develop courses of both formal and non-formal education. (See also Case Study 14.) In 1979 the Ministry of Education created a new Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE). BEC was absorbed into this department and its formal course activities became the Correspondence Course Section.

In 1980 it was felt that the Department was having problems maintaining the correspondence system. There had been a freeze on enrolments, partly due to staff shortages, and when this was lifted in mid 1980, there was an enormous backlog of enrolments. IEC was invited to advise on how to overcome these problems.

The following note is by Tony Dadds, who was the IEC consultant.

The records and enrolment procedures at DNFE are as follows:

1. Students make enquiries about enrolment either through DNFE's District Offices or direct to headquarters in Gaborone.
2. Enquirers are sent an enrolment form together with a booklet on 'How to enrol' and a prospectus of the courses offered, and asked to complete them and send them back either to District Office or HQ. (The 'Application to enrol' is reproduced on pp. 63-4.)
3. The enrolment forms are processed at HQ and those admitted are given a Student Number and entered onto a Course Card, a Fees Card, and into an enrolment book, listed by District. They are then sent the first packages of course units and textbooks for the courses they have enrolled in.
4. The Course Card (shown on p.65) is the student's master card as long as he/she is enrolled for any course with DNFE. Each subject is entered in a separate column (S = subject, T = tutor), and the date each assignment is received and the mark given to it is recorded in each column. The date of each despatch of materials for each course is also recorded. There is a column to record receipt of letters from students and any special instructions given. The Course Card is filed in numerical order (by student number) in a record-card drum or visual card index cabinet and remains there as long as the student is active.
5. On the reverse of the course card is the Ledger Card (also on p.65) on which a complete running record of all payments made for all courses and receipts sent and of the outstanding fees balance at any time is kept.

6. The Ledger Card, kept at HQ, should tie in with the student's Fees Card (p. 66) on which the student fills in what he/she pays and when it is sent to the Department. The Department then records the date received, receipt number and balance.

7. An occasional check is carried out to establish:

which students are ready to take their exams; they are then recommended for enrolment in the next exams sitting;

which students have ceased to be active; they are then reminded of the need to work steadily and to submit assignments regularly and asked if there are reasons/problems which have led to their inactivity; eventually their cards are withdrawn from the records cabinet if they remain inactive or have completed their courses.

The following extracts from IEC's consultancy report deal with the section's records system and its records staff, and with the question of decentralisation:

2. RECORDS AND THE FLOW OF INFORMATION

The records section of a correspondence unit is the nerve-centre of the whole operation. As far as I can see the records section of the Department of Non-Formal Education obtains and stores efficiently almost all the information about students, tutors and courses which is required. There are delays in enrolment and initial despatch of materials, caused by the numbers of new applications resulting from the re-opening of enrolments after a period of suspension. Recommendations to cope with these delays are dealt with in paragraph 5 "Staffing and Administration".

A more serious problem seems to be the difficulty in extracting from the records specific items of information on demand. It is possible to find out how individual students are progressing. It is not possible to find out about groups of students - in a particular district, or even in a particular subject - without going through all the student cards. The result is that District Officers have virtually no information about their students, and subject tutors (including CDOs) have no systematic information about how students react to their courses. Neither are able, therefore, to provide satisfactory support services to their students. Attempts have been made to remedy both these deficiencies.

Regular reports on student activity and student progress seem to have lapsed. Without such reports it is impossible to monitor the unit's effectiveness. A regular system of reporting has therefore been proposed and up-to-date information on active student numbers and monthly turnover of worksheets has been obtained.

I was also asked to look into the advisability of limiting enrolment to specific periods each year and of fixing an enrolment ceiling. I can see no real advantages in either. There appears to be a natural "heavy enrolment period" in the

months following the publication of school exam results. This can be emphasised by timing all publicity of the department's correspondence courses at that period. This way, as many students as possible can be encouraged to start at the same time if the records department can cope with such "heavy periods". Theoretically this allows for pacing of courses by group work and radio programmes. In practice, students' progress pace will vary enormously, and neither group work nor radio programmes can assume that students are at the same point in the course. Some potential students will inevitably apply throughout the year. I can see no sound reasons to force them to wait till a specified period to start. Such delays can only lead to loss of enthusiasm. The only ceiling on enrolments which I can see as justified would be imposed by a lack of suitable marker tutors, or a lack of study-centre facilities. No such limits seem to exist. By contrast, the more students enrol, the more effective study-centre activities can become and the more economic the system becomes. For this reason I believe that every effort should be made to increase enrolments at all levels.

Actions taken:

1. A District Card has been designed. All enrolments have been sorted into Districts, and a system of maintaining the flow of information between HQ and District Offices proposed.
2. The Subject Allocation to Tutors Lists have been redesigned and suggestions made for keeping them up-to-date.
3. Monthly Student Assignments Turnover Reports/Charts have been reinstated.
4. The whole records have been brought up-to-date as regards Active/Inactive students. Two stages of "inactivity" have been proposed: if inactive for 4 months, a letter should be sent, urging students to inform the department that they have stopped, and why, or to restart their studies. If they are still inactive after 6 months their cards should be withdrawn and stored in an "inactive" file, as at present. The interim stage is intended as an early warning system and a chance to try to provide counselling to prevent dropout.

5. STAFFING AND ADMINISTRATION

Some of the work involved in implementing these proposals, both at HQ and at Districts, involves an increase in workload and even additional staff. Some of it involves re-organisation of existing staff and workloads. The following schedule incorporates both.

5.1 Records Office

- one additional records officer is required to cope with

existing and suggested increases in records work efficiently

- flexibility in staffing is essential so that from time to time, when enrolment pressures or sudden floods of worksheets or urgent materials dispatches arise, staff from other sections of the department can be switched into the records and dispatch section - on a quid pro quo basis
- one Records Officer needs to be appointed as Foreman of records and correspondence dispatch. Such a person, if possible, should receive some short but intensive management training
- a tight, regular and systematic supervision of records and dispatch needs to be exercised by the Head of the Correspondence Unit.

The two main recommendations and changes resulting from this report related to the flow of information about student progress to District Officers and to subject tutors and course development officers:

1. The District Card was created for each student and cross-referenced to the Course Card. Initial enrolment information and receipt/marks of assignments and fees are recorded on it, even though this means duplicating that information at H.Q. From it regular monthly District Lists are compiled and sent to District Adult Education Officers, including information about inactive students in each District. In this way District Officers are able to undertake more effective support and counselling services.
2. The Student Allocation to Tutors lists were also reinstated. The redesigned lists mean that tutors keep and submit to Headquarters from time-to-time an up-to-date list of students under their charge and their progress through the courses. From these lists information about all students' progress, problems, and reactions in each course can be obtained readily for purposes of evaluation and revision.

Department of Non-formal Education
BOTSWANA EXTENSION COLLEGE
Private Bag 0043
GABORONE

Application to enrol in BEC

1. Surname Name (Mr/Mrs/Miss)
2. Address Date of birth
- 4. Kgotla/ward
3. Job 5. District
6. Educational background:
 - a) Primary school attended
 Year completed
 Did you attempt standard seven exam? Yes No Grade
 - b) Secondary school attended

 Form completed
 - c) Further training
 College
 Course completed Result
7. Have you taken your JC examination? Yes ... No ... If yes, when?
 Examination number grade

List below your Examination results.

JC		
Subject	Year	Result

8. Have you attended any continuation classes? Yes No
9. If you are admitted, how many hours per day can you study?
10. Which course do you wish to study (Tick one) JC GCE
 What subjects?
 (Not more than
 THREE)

PLEASE DO NOT WRITE ON THIS SIDE

Date sent

Student No

Date received back

Decision

Date A42/A43 sent

6471

A41

DEPARTMENT of NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

LEDGER CARD

Student number

Date of enrolment

Payment on enrolment P

Receipt number

..... monthly fees of P

Initials

Record of instalment payments

Date of termination..... Reason.....

Date	Amount	Receipt number	initials	total paid	balance to pay

Total
to pay

.....

A9

COURSE CARD

JFMAMJJASOND

JFMAMJJASOND

JFMAMJJASOND

S										
T	date	mark	date	mark	date	mark	date	mark	date	mark
A1										
B2										
C3										
D4										
E5										
F6										
G7										
H8										
I9										
J10										
K11										
L12										
Despatches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
1										
2										
3										
4										
5										
6										
7										
8										

Letters

Special
instructions

A8

NAME - - - - -

STUDENT NO - - - - -

FEES CARD

A 10

Each time you send us instalments of your fees, please send this card with your money. It will be returned with an official receipt. You should pay another P in the next six months.

Total course fees - - - - -

Paid on enrolment - - - - -

Balance due - - - - -

Fill in these two columns
when you send money to REC

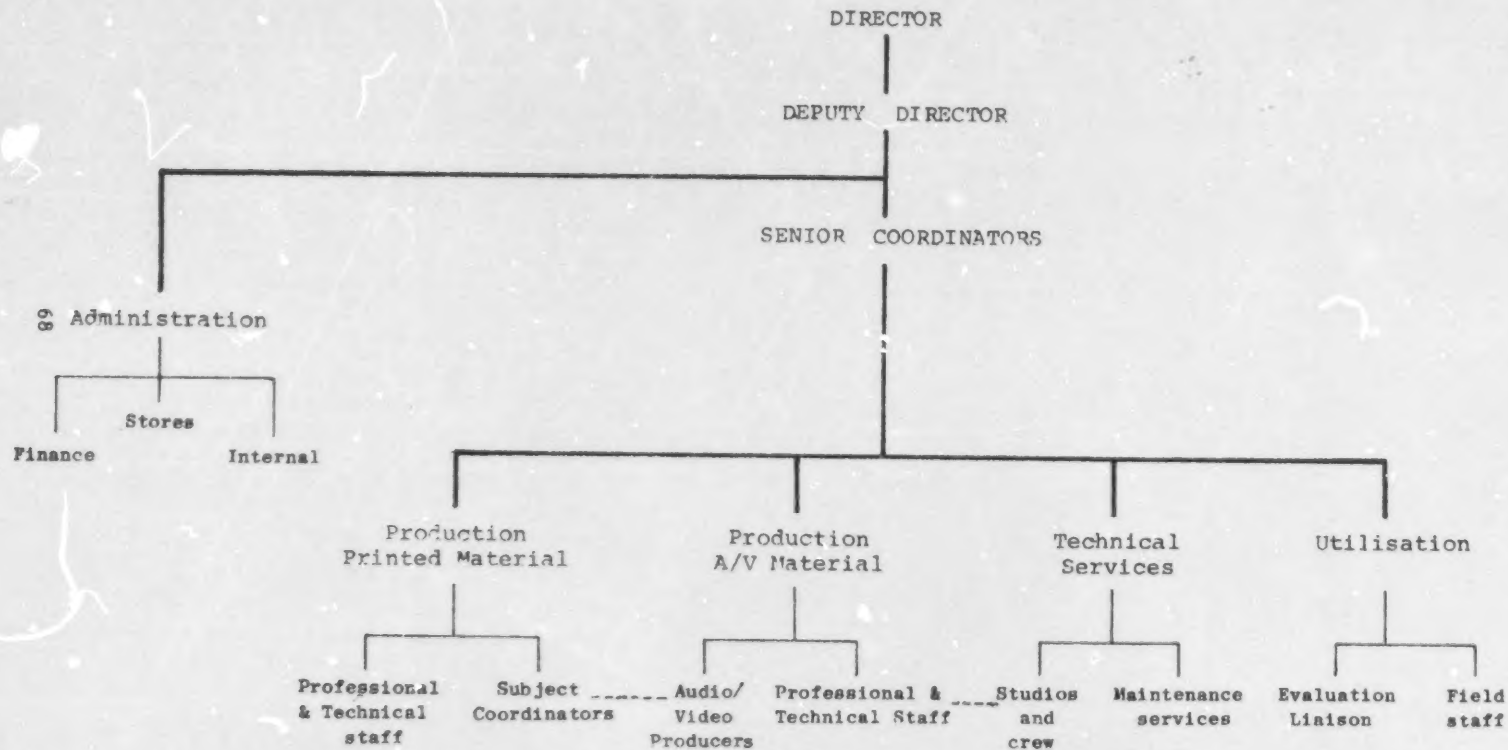


Date	Amount	Date	Receipt No.	Intls	Balance

Case study 18: The departmental organisation of the Mauritius College of the Air

The Mauritius College of the Air (see also Case Study 5) was established in 1972. By 1980 it was running a variety of courses for use in secondary schools, continuing education courses for out-of-school students, a pre-primary school teachers' French course and media and training support courses for non-formal education. These courses were all multi-media, and used correspondence courses, radio programmes, films, television programmes and occasional face-to-face seminars. In order to provide the services required by these different activities the MCA has built up a departmental structure which is illustrated in the organisation chart attached.

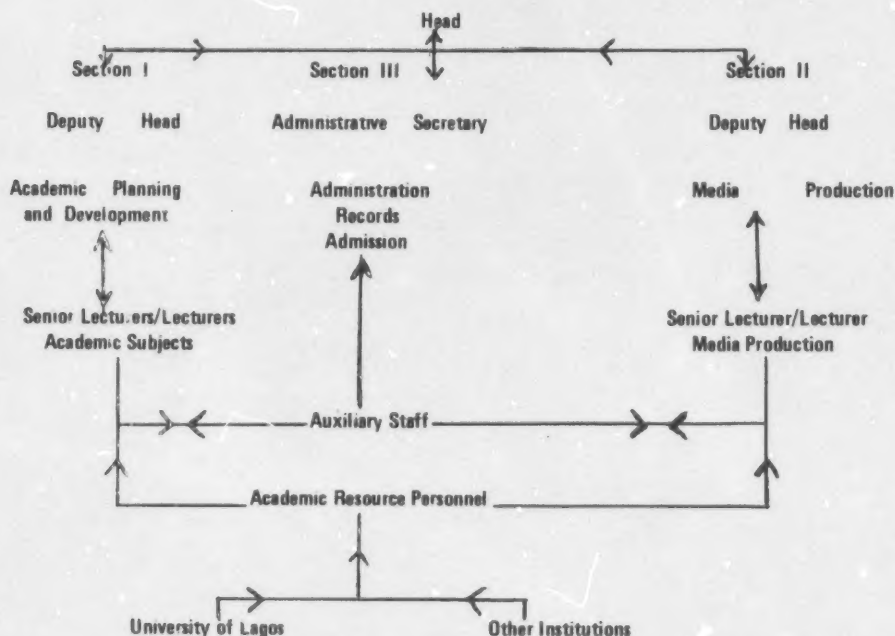
MCA - DIVISION OF FUNCTIONS



Case study 19: The departmental organisation of the University of Lagos Correspondence and Open Studies Unit

COSU was set up in 1975. It runs degree programmes in science education and business studies. It now has 1 300 students enrolled in five programmes and has just graduated its first students. Its broadcasting arrangements and its network of study centres are described in Case Studies 6 and 15. Course materials are written and produced co-operatively by COSU and the relevant internal university subject department. The organisation chart below shows how COSU is divided into sections in order to supervise these various activities; it is followed by a description of realms of responsibility.

From 'COSU in perspective', paper presented by Y. Olumide to the Committee of Deans and the Senate of the University of Lagos. This reflects the position in 1977. There have been many changes since.



Realms of responsibility

Head of unit - The chief academic and administrative executive of the unit. He has overall responsibility for

- (a) smooth administration, systems co-ordination, academic excellence;
- (b) planning the unit's operations and establishments;
- (c) representing the unit in central university bodies;
- (d) maintenance of general motivation and discipline in the unit.

Section I - Academic planning and development

- (a) Consultation with appropriate faculties (and departments) of the university with regard to the content of courses and in liaison with the academic resource personnel in the University of Lagos; appoint course-text writers and moderators for the different subject areas;
- (b) academic editing of the course text material;
- (c) preparation of academic guides for students;
- (d) determine, in consultation with departments, appropriate textbooks for students and reference textbooks for study centres;
- (e) ensure the academic content and pedagogical excellence of the course text and tutorials;
- (f) co-operate with Section II on the academic content and pedagogical excellence of all broadcast programmes;
- (g) determine the point at which course texts should be revised or re-written;
- (h) monitoring academic progress of students;
- (i) consider applications to change courses or subjects;
- (j) continuous evaluation of the unit's courses;
- (k) arrangement for the production of study kits (especially for science subjects).

Section II - Media production services

- (a) Planning and co-ordinating production of course text material and all printing needs of the unit;
- (b) planning and co-ordinating all the broadcasting strategies of the unit and liaison with the Nigeria Broadcasting Corporation;
- (c) determine priorities of production of all printing;
- (d) determine priorities of all electronic aids;
- (e) development of audio-visual libraries for the study centres in co-operation with the Centre for Education Technology.

Section III - Administration

- (a) Overall administration of the unit, its tutorial personnel and supplies system; its committee relationships with other parts of the University;
- (b) establishment and operation of students' records systems, from advertisement, through application processes to maintenance of students' progress records;
- (c) registration of students for examinations;
- (d) organisation of distribution systems of study materials;
- (e) administrative servicing of academic resource personnel and part-time employees;
- (f) operation and supervision of the unit's financial affairs.

Auxiliary staff

These range from the administrative, secretarial and clerical group that have to service the work of the unit, to those who are part of the central printing department, responsible for the printing of the course texts and the Centre for Educational Technology.

Academic resource personnel

These can be divided into two groups:

- (a) those in the University of Lagos, in the faculties, who write the course texts, are moderators, correspondence tutors (assessing all the students' written assignments) and conduct three-weekly tutorial sessions in Lagos, run occasional seminars at zonal centres throughout the federation, conduct annual one-week induction course, three-week long vacation course and mark the sessional examination papers;
- (b) those outside Lagos, in institutions of higher learning who conduct three-weekly study centre tutorials.

Case study 20: Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre: staff chart

LUTC (see Case Study 4) was, as shown in the chart below, in 1979 responsible to the Ministry of Education, but also guided by an inter-ministerial management committee. The Centre was on the site of the Lerotholi Polytechnic, responsible for various kinds of post-secondary education, and therefore also had formal links with the Polytechnic.

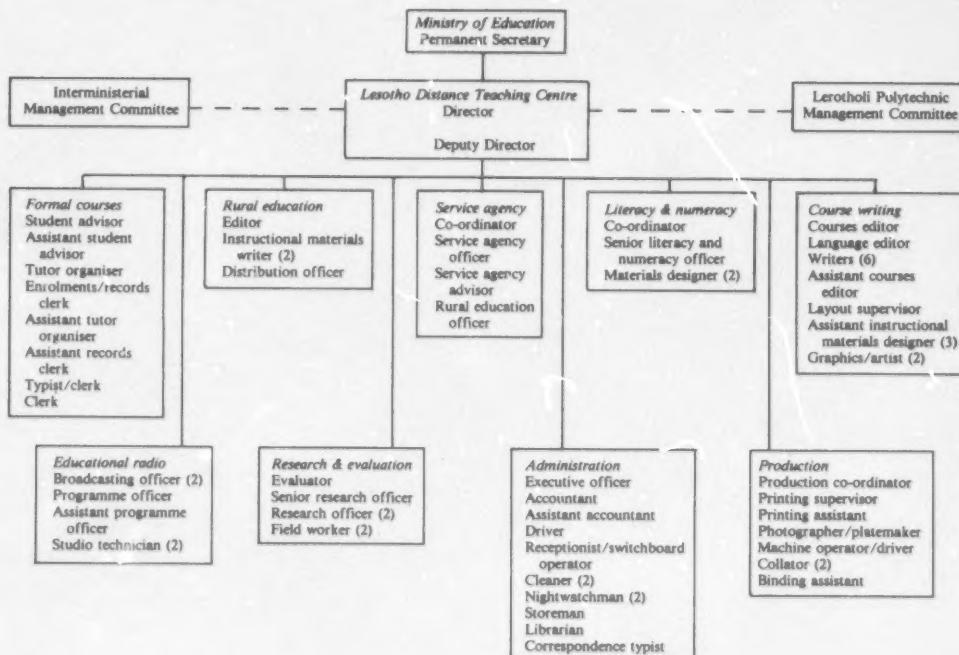
The Centre offered four kinds of courses:

formal courses, generally at secondary level;
rural education courses;
service agency courses, run as a service for other organisations;
literacy and numeracy courses.

The correspondence courses were supported by radio programmes; a research and evaluation section was responsible for testing materials and assessing their effectiveness.

The organisation is set out in the chart below.

From The Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre by Paud Murphy (International Extension College, Cambridge 1981).



Case study 21: A workers' committee

Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (see Case Studies 4 and 20) established a workers' committee in order to improve staff relationships. This describes how it works.

From The Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre by Paud Murphy (International Extension College, Cambridge 1981), pp 56-57.

The workers' committee

As our staff grew during 1975 we were concerned to allow an avenue for grievances which did not involve a direct meeting between the director and an employee. This threatened people, as they felt the director would hold the complaint against them later. They also felt that the director ought not to be embarrassed by direct requests and so they began to use the deputy director or office administrator. They would voice complaints or ask policy questions of them, and if the deputy or office administrator asked permission to bring this to the attention of the director, the employee was always happy for them to do so. The idea of an intermediary between director and employee seemed to be acceptable and so we asked people if they would like to have a workers' committee to look into staff working conditions, to hear occasional complaints, to organise social occasions and to help the director choose new employees. The staff liked the idea and elected three members in January 1976. A new committee was elected in 1977 and another in 1978. Over the two years 1976 and 1977, the workers' committee met regularly and helped referee staff disputes, prepare goodbyes to staff and organise the annual Christmas party. The committee also talked to all the people being interviewed for jobs in the Centre and reported on whether they would fit into the Centre. As well as saving us from hiring unsuitable staff, this also made staff more ready to help a new employee settle into the Centre, as they had a say in the appointment.

The biggest job the committee did was to draw up the working conditions of the Centre staff. They met a number of times and prepared a draft. This was discussed with the director and amendments suggested. Finally an agreed set of conditions were drawn up and distributed. The main principle guiding us was that salaries and working conditions should be similar to those in government. However, we amended these in two important ways.

First of all, we introduced a flexitime system. Some of our work had to be done at weekends and out of normal working hours. The Lesotho government policy is that all civil servants are on call 24 hours of the day. From our point of view it was unrealistic to expect our student adviser to work five full days and every weekend, so we allowed her time off in lieu of time worked over weekends. All staff could make flexitime arrangements.

A second difference was that we gave loans to staff for durable consumer goods or to help with building. The maximum advanced was one month's salary, to be repaid over six months or less. We also gave advances of salary occasionally, up to the amount an employee had earned at that time of the month.

Case study 22: Botswana Extension College's constitution

BEC (see also Case Study 14) was established in 1973. This account by Hilary Ferraton, who was its first director, discusses BEC's constitutional structure.

From Starting the Botswana Extension College by Hilary Ferraton (International Extension College, Cambridge 1977), pp 10-13.

Constitution

This was the brief in the 1973-78 Development Plan:

'BEC will be established in 1973, and it will use correspondence courses, radio and face-to-face methods to teach a wide range of subjects. The original concept of the College suggested only Junior Certificate courses, but it was subsequently considered that it could make a more valuable contribution to education and manpower development by operating a wide range of courses and thereby complementing the activities of formal institutions. It is planned that the College should eventually run a variety of courses, for example, Junior Certificate subjects leading to formal examinations, courses of upgrading and retraining leading to promotion or salary advances, and information courses not leading to examinations.....'

'The College will open in 1973 in temporary facilities as a two-year pilot project in which the accent will be on research, experimentation and preparation for expansion..... The College will in this period run a few courses on an experimental basis.'

(Ministry of Finance & Development Planning 1973 para 7-154-5)

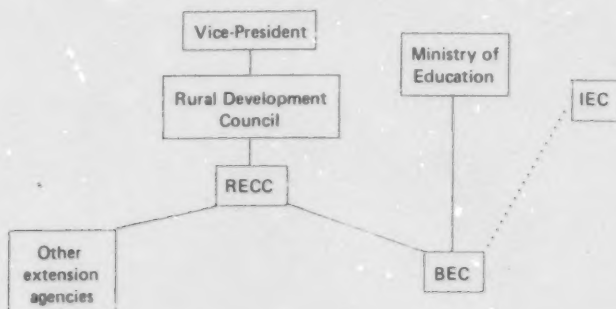
This left the detailed planning until BEC's staff were in post and meant that the selection of courses, to which we return in the next chapter, was of crucial importance. The status of the College was also unclear at this time. The original suggestion had been that the College should form part of the University. But, by February 1973, it was clear that the Ministry of Education would not wish the College to be based there and that they would probably want it more closely linked to the Ministry. Late in 1973 it looked as if the options were for the College to become a parastatal body, or to become a department of the Ministry of Education; by this time, it was clear that a lot of BEC's work would be done in co-operation with other government agencies, and in particular with the Ministries of Agriculture and of Local Government and Lands, and that such co-operation would be made easier by having formal governmental status. By becoming a government department, we gained access to government supplies, government transport and free postage. In November we therefore sought and gained Cabinet approval for our status as a government department, and for the outline plans of what we wanted to do over the next couple of years.

Relationships

We had one major worry about this, apart from the educator's normal fear of getting tied in red tape by surrendering his apparent independence to Government. Ministries of education in most countries are more concerned with formal than with nonformal education and are under very strong public

and political pressure to improve and expand the formal sector. This is all the more true in a country with as small an educational base as Botswana. Similar pressures in Zambia had forced the correspondence unit there to concentrate exclusively on the enormous task of meeting the demands for alternatives to secondary schools – a vitally important educational job but not the only one. Our brief was to experiment with distance teaching for nonformal as well as formal purposes and we were concerned that the formal examination courses should not swamp the nonformal. In the event, three factors enabled us to concentrate on nonformal work without being pressed to abandon it in favour of the formal courses. (Indeed, they probably suffered by the amount of energy we needed to concentrate on the nonformal.) First, the volume of work demanded from 1975 onward on education for land reform helped establish BEC as a body with interests and concerns of that kind. Second, and more generally, the commitment to rural development as a national policy meant that there were strong government pressures for BEC to concentrate on nonformal work as well as providing formal courses. This commitment was probably reinforced by the tradition of educational innovation in Botswana, largely due to the growth of the Brigade movement.

Third, Botswana has established a constitutional structure for co-ordinating its rural extension work; this helped BEC to link its work with that of other agencies and provided a framework for decisions about nonformal as well as formal education. All extension agencies, including the College, report to the Rural Extension Co-ordinating Committee. (This, in turn, reports to the Rural Development Council, chaired by the Vice-President.) The Co-ordinating Committee (RECC) is chaired by the Co-ordinator of Rural Development who is based in the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning but reports direct to its Minister, the Vice-President. BEC is now constitutionally established so that it is responsible to the Ministry of Education, whose portfolio includes nonformal education, but reports on its nonformal work to the RECC. This structure was particularly important if BEC was to work with the other extension agencies and so discover how distance teaching could support what they were already doing.



BEC's constitutional position

Along with the formal pattern of reports to RECC, BEC naturally also developed many informal, day-to-day links with other Government departments, with which it was working. In one case we formalised these rather more: it was clear that there was scope for co-operation between the College and DEMS (the university extra-mural division) in many areas. DEMS had staff in two district offices and plans to set up more local offices, and responsibilities for adult education and training in adult education. They also had experience of running the 1973 radio campaign. We therefore set up a monthly meeting with DEMS to discuss the work of both agencies, and future plans for them, in an attempt to ensure that our relationship was one of co-operation, rather than of demarcation disputes.

There were two areas in which relationships were more difficult to establish. First, Botswana at present lacks an effective way of co-ordinating activities in the area of training, other than through informal contact between the interested agencies, such as the Botswana Training Centre, which concentrates

on public service and commercial training and the National Centre for Vocational Training whose main emphasis is on practical skills. As a result, it proved very difficult to find a focus for discussions of the use of distance teaching methods for training, whether in the public service or in the private sector. And yet, with a government and local government service distributed through a huge country, there may be scope for BEC to work in this area. The lack of a focus of this kind, and the pressure of other jobs, meant that we neglected this possible line of development.

The other area, oddly, is in formal education. Some of BEC's work was relevant to schools but we did not succeed in establishing as close links with the inspectorate, or with those thinking about curriculum in secondary schools, as we would have liked. Similarly, while we had repeated discussions about the possibility of starting some more teacher upgrading by means of distance teaching, these discussions came to nothing during BEC's first three years.

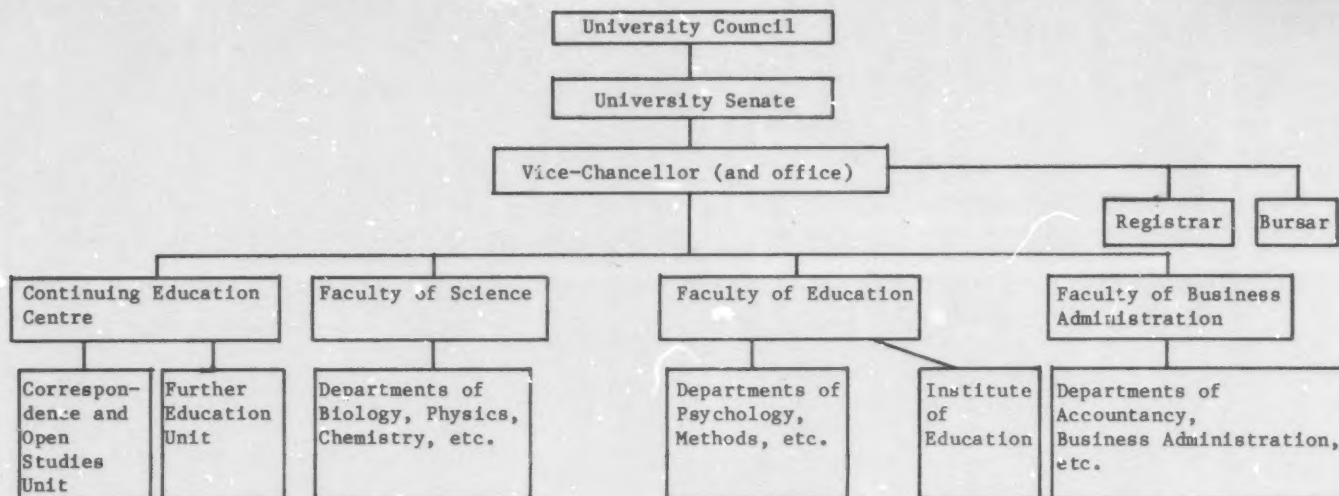
Case study 23: The constitutional status of COSU, University of Lagos

An account by Tony Dodds of COSU's constitutional relations with other parts of the University of Lagos. (See also Case Studies 6, 15 and 19.)

The University of Lagos, Nigeria, decided in 1974 to establish a department to offer tuition leading to its various degrees by correspondence. Such a commitment was embodied in the university's own original constitution. When COSU was finally set up in 1975 its initial programmes were limited to science education and business studies. The University of Lagos' plans for a correspondence unit were endorsed by the National Universities Commission in the context of a continuing discussion about the most effective way of establishing a university-level distance-teaching programme. At least two other universities in Nigeria, Ibadan and Ahmadu Bello (ABU), were working on plans for correspondence programmes. In the event Ibadan launched an abortive external degree programme without tuition, and ABU has developed successful pre-degree teacher education programmes by correspondence. At the same time the idea of an entirely separate Nigerian Open University, modelled on the UKOU, had been raised, and this idea has recently (1981) been discussed seriously at the highest national educational and political levels. It has, at least temporarily, been shelved, and the University of Lagos COSU programme continues, having graduated a handful of students in January 1982, the first in Nigeria to have completed their degrees by correspondence.

The original proposal for degrees by correspondence at the University of Lagos concentrated exclusively on degrees in education for secondary-level teachers. The correspondence unit, it was therefore proposed, would be in the then College of Education (which in 1976 became the Faculty of Education). The final plan of action, however, adopted by the University Senate in 1975, proposed that the Correspondence and Open Studies Unit should be independent of any single faculty and should eventually exist to provide correspondence programmes for all faculties and centres of the university. It was thus created as part of the Continuing Education Centre (CEC), a service arm offering extension activities to the population outside the university through whatever internal teaching faculty might seem to be appropriate. The existing CEC, which offered such extension activities mainly through short intensive in-service residential courses, became the Further Education Unit, as the diagram below shows.

The COSU was represented on the academic boards of all the faculties with which it was jointly producing programmes and, from 1977, was also represented in the Senate by its director. Certain staff members of subject departments with which COSU was to produce courses, moreover, were seconded full-time to COSU for fixed periods and then returned to their departments without loss of status and without damage to their promotional



prospects. Agreements were reached between COSU and faculties determining the balance between such full-time secondments and the employment on a part-time basis of staff members who carried a full internal teaching load.

A Senior Assistant Registrar and an Accounts Assistant were recruited for, and seconded full-time to, COSU to supervise the administrative and financial concerns of the Unit.

COSU was also empowered to employ outsiders on a part-time basis as tutors, course assessors and even course writers (it was agreed that at least 60% of any course should be written by internal university staff).

The purpose of this constitutional structure was to tie the programme very tightly to an existing and established university, and to enable it to capitalise on the part-time capacities and interest of existing university staff and facilities (and in a few cases, where necessary, non-university staff and facilities), both in Lagos and elsewhere. The main arguments for this approach and against a separate Open University are as follows:

1. A separate Open University in Nigeria will have very great difficulty in obtaining academic recognition for its degrees by distance teaching, whereas an existing university can more easily prove their equivalency with internal degrees.
2. Co-operation between universities in Nigeria (as anywhere) is extremely difficult to achieve. An established university is more likely to be able to obtain such co-operation than a new, untried and experimental university.
3. There is already a drastic shortage of qualified and experienced university staff in Nigeria, especially in those disciplines which are most needed to meet national manpower shortages, such as science and business administration. A separate Open University will impose even greater strains on university staffing: the Open University itself might suffer very great recruitment problems because it is not an old established university and could finish up with very inexperienced staff.

Case study 24: Mauritius College of the Air's constitution

This is a description by Tony Dodds, MCA's first director, of the constitutional structure of MCA when it was established (see also Case Study 5).

From *The Mauritius College of the Air* by Tony Dodds (International Extension College, Cambridge, 1975) pp 53-55.

A hybrid institution

MCA was founded in response to the joint initiative of an independent overseas non-profit-making institution and the Government of Mauritius. After initial discussions between these two, the Government asked the International Extension College to establish for it a distance teaching college. Thus MCA was set up as an independent corporate body – a public institution subject to government policy, but independent of Government in the everyday administration of its affairs. From the beginning there was some government involvement in the College's financing, which gave strength to its power over the institution's policy; this has automatically increased with the Government's 50% grant.

Alternative relationships with Government were explored in the initial discussions, namely that MCA should be an integral part of the Ministry of Education, as a government secondary school, or the Teachers Training College, or that it should be attached to an existing but bigger parastatal organisation such as the University or the then unborn Institute of Education. In the light of two year's experience it is perhaps worth speculating on the advantages and disadvantages of these three situations.

The Government had already established an Audio-Visual Centre before the MCA idea was raised. In practice this is a Schools Broadcasting Unit within the Ministry of Education, putting out primary school radio programmes and secondary school TV programmes, designed as supplements to secondary school lessons. The logic of bureaucracy might have argued – and is arguing – for the integration of MCA with the Audio-Visual Centre, as MCA is providing TV programmes exclusively for secondary school students. The strongest argument against it is that effective broadcasting requires flexibility and flare untypical of bureaucracy. More important, however, is the fact that MCA's television programmes for schools are an incidental part of its educational package; if it could be sure that the AVC's set-up enabled it to produce fully-integrated experimental and stimulating programmes for those packages there would be no hesitation in co-ordinating MCA's broadcasting component with AVC. Discussions have been initiated to explore this possibility. It seems unlikely that the present set up of AVC would be appropriate for the much wider and more experimental aims of MCA. There is ample room for two institutions, the one providing broadcasting support services to schools at all levels, a task which if properly performed is indeed a full-time and highly worthwhile use of radio and television, the other using new combinations and new packages of distance teaching to extend educational opportunity to those at present not adequately served by the schools.

The second possibility is that MCA should be attached to the University or the Institute of Education. This has happened in other countries and might have been the chosen solution in Mauritius but for the fact that MCA was set up at a time when the status and functions of the proposed Institute of Education were still being debated. As it is, the Institute has been established outside but closely linked to the University. Its defined responsibilities are

strictly in formal education. Neither the University nor the Institute has an extension department or an adult education department. MCA, if attached, could provide these services. It would then become part of a large and well-established institution; its professional opinions would carry more weight and its independence would be less easily threatened; its staff would enjoy more obvious promotion and security prospects. An extension department concerned with making the resources of the University more readily and more widely available to the community as a whole without excessive or exclusive regard for the perpetuation of academic standards would be very much in line with the admirable tradition of the University and with its overriding concern for practicality and developmental priorities. Such an extension department, particularly if it catered also for the Institute of Education, would encompass all or nearly all of MCA's declared aims. The relationship would, however, pose two very serious risks for MCA. First its priorities would understandably have to take their turn in the struggle for resources and for approval of development plans along with those of the other, perhaps more readily respectable departments. Secondly, if the University were to abandon its rather unusual tradition and revert, regrettably, to university type, the more popularist aims of MCA would almost certainly be abandoned. Such a return to the traditional university fold, particularly in the present educational climate of Mauritius, cannot be discounted.

The third possible relationship is that which was put into practice: a small parastatal body, under the general responsibility of the Ministry of Education, with a Board of Trustees responsible for its policies and administration. This, at least in theory, is the ideal situation for an experimental educational institution. It has the overt recognition of Government whose representatives play an important role in its governance; at the same time it is independent of the bureaucratic machinery and thereby has the flexibility to respond quickly to needs and opportunities as they arise however bizarre these may be at first sight. A small recently established institution, however, does not carry sufficient weight to ensure that its ideas and its experiments are given a fair hearing by the leaders of educational policy who might see some of these as threats to time-honoured beliefs, practices and prejudices. Its independence therefore can be more nominal than real until it has built up a public image and established a public support to which political leaders must eventually pay heed. This MCA discovered to the detriment of some of its most interesting experiments. If allowed to survive, however, as a semi-independent body until the impact of its experiments is felt and recognised by its very large public, there is a chance that it will develop a status and establish respect which will add reality to its constitutional autonomy, so long as this autonomy is exercised within the boundaries of public educational policy.

I have no doubt that such a status is the most desirable of the three examined. There is a danger that it will not be realised, and that events will force on MCA either the first or the second alternative. The second, attachment to the University and/or the Institute of Education, would allow MCA to continue many of the roles which it has begun to assume, and would be by far preferable to absorption into a Ministry of Education department. But if a modest and responsible independence is allowed to be exercised, this will, I believe, be the most beneficial status for MCA itself and for the educational public of Mauritius, in that it will allow it to continue to explore new ways of expanding and deepening educational opportunity and experience for very large numbers of Mauritian students.

Postscript:

The preceding paragraphs were written in 1974. The fear that the argument about MCA's constitutional status would continue was realised. The pressures for its merger with the Audio-Visual Centre of the Ministry of Education grew and eventually became official government policy. Some of this pressure came from within the AVC, and some from outside funding agencies, especially from the World Bank, which called for 'rationalisation' of the two institutions. In 1981, therefore, the Mauritius College of the Air Act was rescinded and a new Act passed by the

legislature, setting up a new parastatal body, to be called the Mauritius Educational Broadcasting Authority, which will merge the assets, staff and activities of the MCA and the AVC. Thus the parastatal status of the MCA has been retained and enlarged. The composition of the Board of Trustees of the new body, however, appears to give more direct control over its activities to the Minister of Education and his officials. As the Act has not been implemented at the time of writing, its effects on the programmes of the two bodies have yet to be seen.

Case study 25: The constitution of the National Extension College

The National Extension College was set up in Britain in 1963 with two aims. The first was to act as a pilot for an open university, demonstrating the methods which such a university might use. The second was to provide an educational service to adults by linking correspondence with broadcasting and face-to-face study. Britain had at that time no public, state, organisation which offered such courses: correspondence education was almost entirely in the hands of private, commercial, correspondence colleges.

The following case study was written by Tony Dodds, for this manual, drawing on the IEC broadsheet The invisible college, by J Jenkins and H Perraton.

NEC was launched with the following brief:

Ours will be the Invisible College of Cambridge. With no college buildings of its own, it will use university and other premises, in the vacations, both in and out of Cambridge. With no full-time teachers of its own, its first staff will be from the Universities of Cambridge, Keele, Bristol, Harvard and Hull, as well as from the remarkable College of Arts and Technology at Cambridge. Without any official grant, its equipment will come mainly from the sort of far-sighted people in industry who supported nineteenth century civic universities.

Who are to be the students - or 'members', as we shall call them - of the College? They will be people who need a second chance - those who did not have the education they would like when they were younger and who are not getting it now, people who want to change their jobs or improve their qualifications in their present careers.

(Michael Young, 'Announcing the National Extension College', Where, Autumn 1963)

The College was established as a private, but non-profit, venture. It was registered as a charity but was not part of the formal, state, educational system. On the other hand, it wanted from the outset to work with the state system of education, co-operating with colleges and universities, and working with the public broadcasting organisations, the BBC and the (then) Independent Television Authority. Its policies were governed by a board of trustees, who were mainly educators working in schools, colleges and universities in Britain.

The College's status was, therefore, unusual, but three factors made its work possible. The first was the educational climate of the time: the mid-1960s were a period of expansion, innovation and optimism in English

education. It was a time when there was goodwill towards new educational ideas. Second, England was unusual among developed countries at that time in having no state-supported distance teaching institution: there was a job for somebody to do in providing high quality distance-teaching courses. Third, there is a long tradition in England of voluntary, or private, involvement in education. There is effectively nothing to stop any group of private individuals from starting any sort of educational body, short of a university. For a century and a half church organisations have worked closely with state organisations in providing education. Independent schools, many of them charities, have flourished and some of them have played a key role in introducing new ideas into education, which have then been adopted by the state sector. Thus, while NEC was a non-traditional organisation in terms of its methods, its private, charitable, status was not unusual in England. Nor was its status a bar to the sort of co-operation it sought with the state sector of education. It found no difficulty, for example, in getting its courses written by teachers from regular schools, colleges and universities; from the outset it began to explore ways of getting its students taught, for part of their courses, within their walls as well as outside. This is how Janet Jenkins and Hilary Perraton describe the kind of co-operation NEC sought.

(This and all subsequent extracts are taken from The invisible college.)

Relations with the national educational system were of central concern to NEC. The college wanted to avoid being seen as a second-best institution outside the mainstream of education. It was difficult to see the way to a firmly recognised link between the college's correspondence work and the state system. It was not conceivable in 1963 that any state institution would get into the business of writing correspondence courses or administering them. That had to wait until the establishment of the Open University. Meanwhile NEC could show how the resources of the existing system, particularly state education, could contribute to its work.

NEC had to continue working out how it was to relate to the state system of education. an experiment started in January 1967 at Havering Technical College, which offered 'Saturday seminars'. The aim was to provide face-to-face tuition at the technical college for NEC students. Seven Saturday courses were provided in English and history at 'O' and 'A' levels; laboratory sessions were offered to students of biology, physics and chemistry at both levels. Students came from far beyond Havering's own area.

A separate issue about NEC's relation with the state system was the question of inspection. From the days of Matthew Arnold, England had a corps of Her Majesty's Inspectors (HMIs) who inspected both state and private schools. But inspection in the private sector was never compulsory: anyone could open a school as long as it met the necessary health standards. And HMIs did not inspect correspondence colleges; it was not even clear that they had the legal power to do so. A private member's bill to initiate such inspections passed into oblivion in 1963. On its foundation NEC applied for inspection and urged the government to take on the responsibility of inspecting not only the college itself but the rest of correspondence education. At about the same time, the Association of British Correspondence Colleges, which represented the commercial interests in correspondence education, worked out alternative plans for a system of accreditation. The system would be self-financed and overseen in a fairly loose way by the Department of Education and Science. Between 1965 and 1968 NEC lobbied hard for government inspection, but to no avail; the DES embraced the accreditation system more or less as proposed by the commercial colleges' association.

NEC has always been, and remains, predominantly a print-based teaching institution, with mainly postal links between students and teachers. Yet one of its most important series of experiments has been to link its own resources with the broadcasting media. How has its independent status affected these attempts?

NEC lacked any right of access to airtime: its chances to have courses linked with broadcasts came when, and only when, the broadcasters were willing to make opportunities available.

NEC, after sixteen years, is far from developing an ideal model for co-operation between itself, broadcasting authorities, and agencies interested in face-to-face tuition, far from being able to recommend, or export, a universal model. But a few rules of thumb emerge from its chequered experience of broadcasting.

First, most combined projects have not allowed enough time for developing materials and patterns of co-operation.

Second, successful co-operation demands commitment as well as time. That commitment is facilitated by the sort of course team developed in NEC's early experiments with the BBC, or adopted by the OU.

The need for such close co-operation arises not only from inevitable institutional differences, but also from the different time it takes to prepare various kinds of teaching material. There is a different gestation period for print, for radio, for television, and for setting up counselling or tutoring services. And the times needed by printers or producers are not necessarily those preferred by educators.

Third, successful co-operation demands considerable sensitivity from team members about each other's skills. Stories about tension between television producers and teachers are legion. That tension can be productive, with dialogue producing good ideas, but it is sometimes destructive.

NEC's independent status has continually affected its finances. As a non-government institution it has never had a guaranteed income, and has had to finance itself largely out of the fees its students were able and prepared to pay. As a non-profit-making educational charity it has always set out only to cover its costs. Here is how it started.

Money was needed, but it was possible to start the college on very little. The main source of finance was the Calouste Gulbenkian foundation, who provided £20 000 – half as a grant and half as a loan – to put the college on its feet. Small grants also came from the Elmgrant trust and the C.O. Stanley foundation, a small trust administered by the family then running the Cambridge electronics firm, Pye, who gave money for a language bus. Once the college started teaching, student fees had to cover costs.

And this pattern of financing, with all its uncertainties, has remained. Most of its income comes from its students; occasionally it manages to persuade some charitable funding agency that a particular project is worthy of a grant, because it is experimental or because it is aimed at a particular group of students who cannot be expected to meet all the costs. Its ability to support its courses with broadcasts depends on the readiness of the broadcasting agencies to bear the full cost of the radio or television programmes. Even more rarely it has managed to attract some money from central government. Most of this has also been special grants for special projects – such as money from the Manpower Services Commission for programmes for unemployed young people, though, in the early 1970s

the trustees had succeeded in convincing the Department of Education and Science that NEC was a unique organisation which deserved a small pump-priming grant. For two years the college received a grant of £25 000 annually from the Department – the only general finance it has ever received from central government.

So what have been the advantages and disadvantages of NEC's independence? As the first quotation in this case study shows, NEC was created to be experimental. One important purpose was to show that distance teaching should be taken seriously and would be used at many different educational levels. These, in Britain, it was able to achieve largely because of its independence.

It was also moulded by the particular cast of English education in the early 1960s. It had remarkable freedom to choose its own function: with no public correspondence college in existence it could stake out its territory. The boundaries of that territory were particularly wide, for two reasons of quite different kinds. The first is the way in which English education has tolerated, even welcomed, initiatives outside the state sector. The second is that opportunities for part-time education had in fact declined over the previous half century.

Jenkins and Perraton believe that it has succeeded in making distance teaching respectable:

As part of that process, NEC also helped legitimise the idea of distance education itself. Until the mid-1960s the image of correspondence education was one of shabby courses, taught by failed prep-school teachers, to those who had never made it, and would never make it in a proper academic setting. By insisting on the closest co-operation with state education, by working with the BBC, by employing teachers who were of stature within ordinary schools and colleges, NEC managed to establish that distance education did not need to be a second best. Once its students were being taught by technical college or university lecturers, attending sessions in technical colleges, extramural departments and the like, correspondence education could no longer be regarded as a sad aberration, living under some stone at the far end of education's secret garden.

But independence also has disadvantages. Jenkins and Perraton list two such problems as examples of NEC's main failures.

The first is financial; despite the legitimisation talked of, NEC has failed to persuade governments that distance study should receive a state subsidy comparable to that of other parts of adult education. NEC is not, in the official jargon, a Responsible Body, receiving funds direct from the Department of Education and Science. This same lack of official status is reflected, too, in NEC's relations with broadcasting. It has not been able to negotiate a right of access to broadcasting time; as a result we remain far from having a system of distance education comparable to the patchy but adequate system of evening institutes for people who can attend them rather than studying at home.

Case study 26: Service agency work in Lesotho

The Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (see also Case Studies 4, 20 and 21) started work in 1974 with very limited funds, but with a commitment to work with other agencies concerned with education and rural development in Lesotho. It rapidly developed a major programme of service agency work and drew up suggested guidelines for other organisations doing such work, from which this case study is taken.

Adapted from 'Becoming a service agency - points to keep in mind' by Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre (paper prepared for IEC workshop, Dartington 1977).

These points are based on the experience Lesotho Distance Teaching has had in Lesotho during the past three years. They are in two parts - general points to keep in mind when establishing the agency and points to keep in mind when doing individual jobs.

Establishing a service agency

1. Identify a need.

Perhaps the most fundamental point to establish before going into service agency work is whether or not there is a need.

It is possible that existing agencies provide the service or that organisations have the facilities to carry out work themselves. It is also possible, however, that organisations are not aware of distance teaching methods and do not see the potential for using them. A preliminary investigation should determine the real need.

2. List exactly the services you are offering.

There will be a great deal of confusion initially about the kind of service you are offering. Writing down the kind of service and circulating this widely may avoid some of this confusion.

The following is an extract from a paper we have printed to describe our service agency work.

"We are however an educational organisation and our service agency work must

comply with our aim of using distance teaching methods to bring education to more people in Lesotho. We are especially interested in assisting private candidates and in providing education of a practical kind for the general public, particularly rural people. We do not normally undertake work for another organisation which is primarily promotional or administrative rather than educational, as for example printing annual reports, administrative forms, or greeting cards.

However we are open to helping with a very wide variety of educational services from printing small scale educational materials through to advising an organisation on its educational work, designing a multi media educational campaign and testing and producing the materials for that campaign.

The Centre has the people and resources to help with the following:

- research
- writing
- editing
- typing
- printing
- artwork
- collating
- script writing
- recording

We are willing to help other organisations in any of these areas subject to the proviso that our own work should not suffer. We would not, for example, be able to help with a large research project for another organisation if our research department was heavily committed to LDTG's work. However we would normally be able to help with small scale research. Again we could not commit our printing machines to work for another organisation on a job which would occupy them fully for several weeks. But we could consider work taking a day or two.

And we are very willing to help organisations wishing to make use of all of our services over a period of time as was the case with both Thaba-Bosiu Rural Development Project and Lesotho Family Planning Association. Service Agency work of this kind allows us to plan ahead so that all of our resources are fully used and gives the organisation using our services a planned, integrated and tested range of materials. This means that, for example, radio programmes, visual aids and pamphlets can be designed together so

that the educational messages which an organisation wants to pass on are reinforced in a variety of ways."

3. Do other work also.

Establishing an organisation to act only as a service agency has a number of inherent dangers. There are two very obvious ones.

Any organisation established only as a service agency must 'prove' itself by doing work for other organisations. This may lead to the service agency selling itself too actively and doing work for organisations who are not fully committed to that work.

A second danger is that an organisation established only as a service agency may not see the importance of pretesting. To an untrained eye there is often very little difference between a booklet which is simply typed and printed and one which is circulated to experts for comments, tested, re-drafted, typed and printed. An organisation involved in other work is more likely to want to see the results of the testing since that will have a direct bearing on its other work.

4. Start small.

It is not a good idea to begin to advise on multi-media nation-wide campaigns before your staff have had a great deal of experience. It is impossible to avoid mistakes and the bigger they are initially the less likelihood there is of other organisations using your services.

5. Develop one medium at a time.

Related to starting small is the need to concentrate on one medium at a time in order to build up expertise. Multi-media campaigns should be avoided until the staff is ready.

In the beginning it is probably best to develop expertise in the medium with the most potential.

The medium to concentrate on initially, therefore, depends on the country. In countries with a low literacy rate and good radio reception, radio may be the best starting point.

6. Be patient

If there is a need for a service agency and the work you do is good, then

organisations will make use of you. It is counter-productive to visit organisations continually asking if there is work which the service agency can do.

7. Publicise selectively.

Related to this is the question of how you let other organisations know what you are doing and what they can expect from the service agency.

We approached organisations and discussed our work. Two other very useful ways of attracting attention and interest are to involve related organisations in materials production and to circulate reports on work.

8. Don't tread on toes.

If an organisation already acts as a service agency do not set up in competition with it. Talk to each organisation offering a service and find out what they offer and what they can realistically do. Then discuss with each organisation the work you propose to do and get agreement on this.

We refer organisations requiring other kinds of assistance to the organisations which provide that service.

9. Retain some independence.

It is important not to be established as part of one ministry. An organisation acting as a service agency must not be so dependent that it can be easily called upon to solve day to day problems. Ministries often for staffing reasons will have course, school or other crises, and if they know they have a division which can help them out they will use it.

If a service agency is a division within Government, then it should be controlled by an inter-ministerial management committee.

10. Innovate, don't maintain.

Acting as a service agency should not involve continuing to provide a service which the organisation can easily provide itself. For example, providing advice and help with a training course for an organisation can lead to providing advice and help with each training course which that organisation runs for the next twenty years.

As a service agency the most useful job to do for an organisation is to

provide materials and training which the organisation can then use for itself.

Doing individual jobs

Each of the points to keep in mind when establishing a service agency depends on one basic assumption - that the service agency can provide a useful service. The best judges of that will be the organisations using the service agency and one measure of success is the number of times organisations come to the agency for advice and help.

The points given below should be kept in mind when undertaking individual jobs.

1. Do a thorough pre-job survey.

Whether an organisation comes requesting a leaflet for 200 farmers describing a new variety of seed or a multi-media campaign to make the whole country aware of the problem of soil erosion, you can normally assume that they are not completely clear about what they want or what services you offer. One of the most important jobs a service agency can do is to help the organisation establish its objectives clearly.

It may also be necessary to look at what exactly is happening in the field before deciding on an approach. The managements of large organisations are usually the ones who approach the service agency but their view of activities at grass roots level within their own organisations can be unrealistic.

2. Write a description of the proposed service agency work.

This helps to commit the organisation and provides a continuing reference while the work is being done.

Another point to get down on paper concerns the effects of any changes made to an original proposal. In one service agency proposal we suggested a range of materials and courses to do a particular job. The materials and courses were interlinked to support each other. However they were costed separately. When the organisation's management considered the proposal they cut out the courses. If the proposal had spelt out the interdependence of courses and materials the organisation may have cut down a little on each item instead of cutting out one item completely.

3. Involve the organisation at all levels.

As a part of the preliminary discussions each person connected with the work should be contacted and the work discussed with them. There are quite often three groups of people within the organisation: management, trainers and trainees. The materials produced by the service agency are commissioned by management for trainees but will be used by trainers.

4. Involve the organisation in the design of the materials.

When all the preliminary work has been done and agreement has been reached about which materials are to be produced, do not go away and return some time later with a finished product. Involve the organisation by circulating drafts of materials to key people within the organisation. Take their comments into account when producing a second draft. Report back to them on the testing also.

5. Establish clear links with the organisation.

It is very important to have an established line of authority within the organisation requesting a service. If an individual within the organisation is responsible for co-ordinating the joint project then he can be approached to arrange meetings, authorise production of materials, circulate drafts etc.

If no individual is responsible all this work falls onto the service agency.

6. Don't interfere with what is good.

If an organisation invites a service agency in to help it with a particular aspect of its training then it often believes that training is not adequate. However it may not be looking clearly enough at what is needed.

In one case LDTC was invited to look at a training programme for spinners and weavers. We were asked to help the trainers with visual aids. We attended training courses and it was obvious that people were being trained adequately and that the only visual aids needed were the spinning machines. We advised the organisation not to interfere with the present training programme but to observe and standardise it.

7. Do what the organisation wants.

Where an organisation requests advice and help with a leaflet for farmers it is not constructive for the service agency to suggest a multi-media high

cost project instead. Obviously the organisation will not be able to afford it.

In a situation like this, the service agency should offer help as requested. If, however, it feels that a multi-media campaign would be appropriate in future, a suggestion can be made. The organisation can then consider the suggestion and begin to look for funds.

It is also important to remember that as the staff of a service agency develop expertise they may begin to feel that they are the ultimate authority on what should be produced by organisations. When a service agency staff dismisses suggestions from the requesting organisations, they are risking an end to all requests.

8. Report on all work.

These reports obviously benefit the requesting organisation. However they have two other major benefits also. Firstly they provide a clear record of what was done so that future work can improve. Service agency staff members can consult these reports when designing a project. At LDTC we have found previous reports provide an invaluable shortcut in the design and implementation of new work. Secondly reports, if circulated selectively, inform other organisations of the type of work being undertaken by the service agency.

9. Evaluate

All materials should be checked through with the organisation and pretested on the eventual audience. Where possible the use made by the organisation of the materials should be evaluated as well as the final impact of the service agency work on the intended audience.

10. Keep clear financial records.

It is often necessary when setting up as a service agency to do initial jobs cheaply. We have done this for a number of jobs which were of particular interest to us and which we felt would benefit our other work.

However the organisation commissioning the service agency should be made aware of the real cost of the service. In that way the organisation will plan realistically for any future work.

It should also be made clear to organisations that pre-testing costs are included in the total cost of materials.

Case study 27: Radio learning group campaigns in Botswana — organisation and co-ordination

In 1977 the Botswana government planned to launch a new land use policy which would have a major impact on one of the population's main economic activities, cattle husbandry. Before doing so it carried out a national educational and consultation campaign, using the radio learning group method which had been tried out earlier in Botswana and was in part modelled on very big national radio study group campaigns in Tanzania. Case Study 9 gives a summary of how radio learning group campaigns in Botswana were organised. This excerpt from Crowley, Kidd and Etherington's Radio Learning Group Manual is based largely on the experience of the Tribal Grazing Lands campaign, though it describes the steps which would need to be taken, in Botswana, for an imaginary campaign on rural hygiene, to be known as 'The Clean Campaign'.

2. Rural Extension Co-ordinating Committee (RECC)

Once the cabinet has given its firm political backing, it is up to the Rural Extension Co-ordinating Committee to create a comprehensive and operational organisation to run the Campaign. An Organisation Diagram for the Clean Campaign is given on the following page.

The Rural Extension-Co-ordinating Committee is the unit in Botswana which attempts to coordinate nationally planning and information about Nonformal Education. You will have a similar body in **your** country; its form may be that of a committee like the RECC, it may be a series of committees or it may be a single officer. But whatever its form its role will be similar to the RECC's and it is of critical importance if you want to run an RLG Campaign.

We **must** keep reminding ourselves that RLG campaigns are big, affecting many agencies. The campaign must therefore be cleared by all these agencies. They must

- a) be informed about the campaign
 - b) agree to the campaign and
 - c) state their support for it, formally.
- In addition at the first meeting they must
- a) nominate a Campaign Coordinator
 - b) instruct the Campaign Co-ordinator: to take control of the Clean Campaign
 - c) nominate agency members of the Clean Campaign
 - d) announce the first Clean Committee meeting date

In Botswana it is the RECC which would do this clearing work. All the extension/nonformal education agencies sit on it and it is the committee that would produce formal government approval for the campaign. In Botswana the campaign would be supervised by an inter-ministerial sub-committee of the RECC (the Clean Committee) — and you would need a similar supervisory committee in **your** country.

Once this is done he should take the plan and discuss it with each agency involved in the Campaign in order to get their support in principle for agreed tasks against certain deadlines. This gives each agency a chance to review their suggested contributions to the Campaign and comment on other aspects of the Campaign's plan. Based on the agency's suggestions, the plan is further amended and submitted to the first meeting of the Clean Committee.



4. The Clean Committee



This is a committee made up of the Campaign Coordinator as chairman and members from all the agencies who have significant involvement in the Clean Campaign. Its members must be senior in their own departments and they must be able to commit those departments to action agreed by the committee.

Basically the Clean Committee has three functions

- To give the Campaign Coordinator the assistance he requests
- To review, and assist with the progress of the Campaign and
- To keep their own departments and agencies fully informed.

The Clean Committee would probably meet every three or four months.

In its first meeting the Clean Committee gives final approval to the Campaign plan. In addition the members should agree on

- a schedule of committee meetings and a system for keeping their own agencies informed of Campaign progress and demands
- membership of the working teams.

5. The Campaign Working Teams

The next step is to set up working teams to take on the following specialised tasks – field work and training, teaching materials production, evaluation and consultation, action, and data interpretation. At their first meeting each team should

- a) ensure that all members are familiar with the overall Campaign plan
- b) review in detail its own tasks in the Campaign, and
- c) agree on a schedule of meetings and a method of working.

A summary of each team's work is given below –

5.1 The Field Work and Training Team

The tasks of this team are described fully on page 79 onwards. Essentially this group (whose members must be experienced people with field experience), has to plan and monitor

- a) field publicity
- b) the work of the District and Village Teams, including a system for RLG leader recruitment
- c) RLG leader training.



5.2 The Teaching Materials Team

The Teaching Materials Team has to produce all the "teaching" materials for the campaign –

- a) Radio programmes
- b) Study Guide
- c) Flip Chart Illustrations.

Members of this group need to be experienced but there is no mystery about materials production and the job can be done in any developing country.



5.3 The Evaluation/Consultation Team

This group has to

- a) measure the effectiveness of transmission of the campaign message and
- b) organise the response to the campaign message that the campaign brings to its organisers.

The tasks are difficult and need experienced specialists.



5.4 The Action Team

This is the group which, for the Clean Campaign on Environmental Hygiene, has to organise the action aspect of the Campaign. Their work includes

- a) piloting latrine and refuse-disposal types
- b) deciding on appropriate types for different areas of the country
- c) producing the materials for the development of latrines and refuse disposal systems appropriate to the areas researched.

The group should be a mix of sanitation experts and administrators. They must work closely with the Campaign Coordinator to ensure that

- a) the campaign message and the action package work together and
- b) they get the materials to the appropriate areas securely and in good time.



5.5 Data Interpretation Team

This team should be made up of the Campaign Co-ordinator, Evaluation officers and Ministry of Health officials. Their job is to make sense of the data produced by the Clean Campaign so as to help towards producing an appropriate campaign report.



6. District and Town Teams

The final step in setting up the Campaign Organisation is to establish the District and Town Teams. The task of running the Campaign in the districts and towns must be assigned to agencies who actually operate in these areas. Their first task is to hold a meeting and agree on

- a) tasks and those responsible for carrying out each task
- b) a schedule of meetings and a method of working
- c) a system for communicating with the Campaign Co-ordinator.

Detailed job descriptions for all the teams mentioned are laid down later in the manual.



7. Organisational Principles

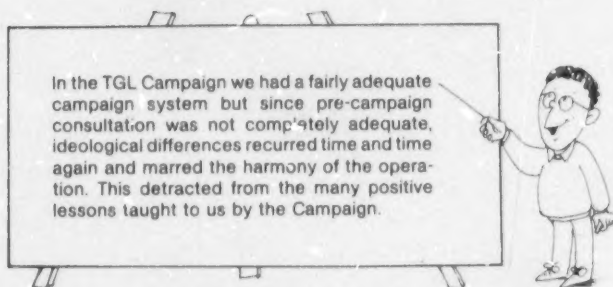
We have described the steps to be taken in moving from the first conception of the Campaign to setting up the organisation needed to run the Campaign. In this last part of the chapter we would like to remind ourselves about some critically important organisational principles.

7.1 Iron Out Your Differences at the Beginning

Differences of opinion about such important considerations as

- whether there should be a large national-scale campaign
- priorities, and
- teaching methods must be ironed out in the preliminary stages.

From that point on, when the campaign is operational, all parts of the plan must be tested against one single criterion – “Does it work?” And the Campaign Teams must work together.



7.2 Use Procedure as the basis for making the Campaign work

RLG Campaigns are always exciting. But they do not work unless they are meticulously prepared. Procedures may not seem to be an exciting part of these operations but they are of basic importance to the success of any RLG Campaign. So be sure to develop clear procedures for every task. And then test the procedures. When we have tested our procedures sufficiently in Botswana we have found that role-playing is a great help in testing, and we suggest that you use role playing too.



Case study 28: The Sudan Extension Unit — a two-year establishment budget

In July 1980 IEC received a grant through the World University Service to investigate the feasibility of setting up a World Refugee College. Its purpose is to explore ways by which distance-teaching methods can provide and extend educational services to refugees. We recognise how vast this proposal is, and so are carrying out a feasibility study as the first stage. As part of the feasibility study, IEC is hoping to establish a limited number of pilot projects offering services by distance teaching to particular refugee communities.

In the Sudan an initial proposal and constitution for an extension unit for refugees has been approved by the Commissioner for Refugees of the Sudan government. Here the unit is expected to start its work in non-formal education. At the same time some formal secondary level courses will be obtained from other colleges, with emphasis on sciences and technical subjects.

Working out the costs

The Sudan Extension Unit did not exist at the time this manual was being written. Moreover, very few similar programmes for refugees existed elsewhere, though many of the courses and activities would be similar to those which other, non-refugee, institutions are running. The budgets therefore, has been based on three somewhat different kinds of calculation:

1. We worked out what kinds of courses and programmes the Unit would offer in response to the educational needs which had been identified and decided how many such courses could realistically be offered for how many students during its first two or three years of existence.
2. Next we calculated in detail the number of staff who would need to be employed, the kind and quantity of the facilities we would need and the quantity and type of course materials which would have to be produced, distributed and serviced. The latter item involved a careful analysis of how many pages or tapes each course would consist of and the equipment required to produce them. We also had to calculate the administrative requirements to run the programme.
3. Finally we had to estimate the costs of all the people, services and equipment needed. In the case of staff and equipment we could get exact figures; to calculate the course requirements - paper, stencils, tapes - and the administrative requirements, we had to estimate on the basis of similar examples from elsewhere; for transport and travel we had to make guesses based on as good a mixture of information and comparisons as we could put together. This is how the budget turned out.

Budget for the Sudan Extension Unit

PRELIMINARY SURVEY (3 months)

f sterling

Fee for survey consultant (2 months)	1 500
Transport expenses	1 000
Support/office costs	250
Supervisory visit from UK	1 000

SUB-TOTAL

3 750

Stage 1 : Institutional development (6 months)

(i) Salaries (including superannuation, transport, etc.)

2 external specialists	- 20 000
7 senior local staff	- 13 000
6 junior local staff	- 6 000

39 000

(ii) Production and administration

Part-time course-writers' fees	- 10 000
Stationery and printing supplies	- 50 000
Local travel costs	- 5 000
Rent of premises	- 2 500
Telephone, post and office services	- 1 000
Group leader training	- 5 000
Purchase of existing courses	- 5 000

78 500

(iii) Capital and international support

Printing equipment	- 20 000
Vehicles	- 17 000
Furniture	- 5 000
International support	- 5 000

47 000

(iv) Contingencies - 5% of (i) and (ii)

5 500

SUB-TOTAL

170 000

Stage II : Pilot Projects (12 months)

(i) Salaries (including superannuation,
transport, etc.)

2 external specialists	-	50 000
7 senior local staff	-	38 000
6 junior local staff	-	18 000

106 000

(ii) Production and administration

Part-time course writers' fees	-	20 000
Printing and stationery supplies	-	100 000
Local travel	-	15 000
Rent of premises	-	7 500
Telephone, post and services	-	3 000
Purchase of courses	-	10 000
General office supplies	-	5 000

160 500

(iii) Capital and international support

Vehicles (for regional offices)	-	15 000
Reference and library books	-	3 000
Practical work equipment, etc.	-	10 000
International support and evaluation	-	20 000

48 000

(iv) Contingencies and inflation

Contingencies 5% of (i) and (ii)	-	13 500
Inflation @ 15% of total	-	49 000

SUB TOTAL

62 500

280 500

TOTAL

Survey	3 750
Institutional development	170 000
Pilot projects	377 000

550 750

COMMENT

1. Salaries, in each stage, are based on agreed salary scales for both international and local staff. For international staff travel costs for a specialist and an average family (say, wife and two children) have to be included - in this case a single journey from Europe to Sudan for Stage I and the return journey from Sudan to Europe at the end of a two year tour. For all staff a 10% superannuation or pension fund contribution was included.
2. Production and administration This is based on the following plans for course development and production and for student enrolment.

The development of the Unit will be in two stages. The first stage, which will cover approximately six months, will be mainly concerned with institution building and further field investigation, with a view to establishing clearly the type of nonformal and formal education that will best meet the needs of the refugees. To this end the following work will be undertaken during this stage:

- (a) Recruitment and training of expatriate staff, not more than two, and local staff, who as far as possible will come from among the refugees themselves.
- (b) Selection of two courses for the NFE aspect of the programme, and development of materials for those two courses including writing, field testing and full-scale production.
- (c) Identification and training of group leaders who will lead the NFE courses.
- (d) Selection of five to six formal courses, two or three craft (vocational) courses, and the commissioning of writers for basic English and basic Arabic courses.
- (e) Survey to identify the facilities for the practical aspects of the craft (vocational) courses, and entering into agreement for their eventual use.

Stage II will be mainly the launching of both the nonformal and formal courses. This will include enrolling and registering students, recruiting tutors for formal courses, and the despatch of lesson materials for the commencement of the courses.

There will be 1 000 to 1 500 students enrolled for the two NFE courses, and 500 each for the formal and craft (vocational) courses. The vocational and the basic language courses will be launched later, perhaps three months after the start of the NFE and the formal courses.

This stage will last eighteen months.

The budget assumes that the printing will have started during the first six months for the nonformal courses and will rapidly build up at the beginning of Stage II for the vocational and language courses. Large quantities of paper will have to be paid for in Stage I for the printing to be carried out in Stage II and even larger quantities in Stage II for the remainder of that period and for the beginning of printing courses for the next stage. It is also assumed that in the

early stages some printing may have to be done commercially. The formal courses will be bought from public institutions outside the Sudan and supplemented where necessary. Similar calculations about timing apply to the hiring of part-time writers.

3. Capital and international support The printing equipment (two medium sized offset litho machines and a platemaker) are budgeted at quoted prices, as are the vehicles. The office furniture figure is informed guesswork based on similar institutions in similar countries.
4. Contingencies and inflation The contingency figure allows for 5% flexibility or miscalculation and the inflation figure, optimistically, assumes 10% inflation per year.

Case study 29: Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre — expenditure

This is a description by Paul Murphy, LDTC's former director, of the way in which the Centre analysed its costs. The figures are in Maloti (M). During the period discussed, the value of the Maloti varied, but lay between M1.60 and M1.85 to the pound sterling. (See also Case Studies 4, 20, 21 and 26.)

From *The Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre* by Paul Murphy (International Extension College, Cambridge), pp 65-69.

Establishment and running costs

The table below lists the actual capital and recurrent costs of the Lesotho Distance Teaching Centre between 1974 and 1979, in Maloti. The figures are approximate for two reasons. First, we received a number of donations in kind and I have had to estimate what these cost the donor. Secondly, a number of donors provided people and paid the salaries themselves. Again I have had to estimate the amounts. However, I am confident that the approximations are realistic and that the total cost over the five years was very close to one million Maloti.

Year	Capital (Maloti)	Recurrent expenditure	Total
1974/5	7 600	23 100	30 700
1975/6	22 000	48 600	70 600
1976/7	111 900	97 200	209 100
1977/8	170 800	193 200	364 000
1978/9	34 900	310 600	345 500
Totals	347 200	672 700	1 019 900

For expatriates whose salaries were not paid by the Centre I estimate costs of M'2000 in 1976/7, M14000 in 1977/78 and M16000 in 1978/9. A very senior officer in the Ministry of Education would have been paid about half of this.

Our building programme, five staff houses in 1976/7 and the new office in 1977/78, accounts for much of the capital expenditure. This should be no more than M20900 a year from then on. Recurrent expenditure should level off at around M400000 and increase in line with inflation.

Allocating costs

When trying to find out how much each activity costs to run, we have to divide certain costs among the different activities. Some staff, like the evaluator, worked on all the different activities and part of their time

has to be allocated to each. Some sections, such as printing and radio, also contributed to each activity, and their costs must be divided up. An attempt to do this is made in the table below. In the breakdown of the Centre's activities for 1978-79 the division was made on the basis of staff time, and the costs of transport, paper, etc., were allocated to each activity in proportion to these. The breakdown does not include the salaries for some staff paid directly by the Commonwealth Secretariat and the Danish aid agency, DANIDA.

Looking at this allocation, our work to help rural people and act as a service agency cost M59 300 in 1978/79 and our work to help private candidates cost M113 500. However, this does not tell the whole story.

Development and running costs

An allocation of M16 534 is shown in the table for course writing. If we add the salaries of course writers paid by CFTC, we get the estimated cost of writing Centre courses in 1978-79. It would not be correct to add this to M113 547 and get a total figure for assistance to private candidates in 1978-79. These are the costs of writing, editing and illustrating courses and they should be allocated over the life of the courses they produce. For example, if it costs M100 000 to write, edit, illustrate and type (but not to print) six correspondence courses, that money will not be spent again until it is time to rewrite the courses — perhaps five years. So the costs should be spread over five years — M20 000 a year, if we ignore the interest we lose by investing in course development rather than in the stock market. If we include a notional 7.5% interest, the figure is £24 716. This is equally true of the costs of developing booklets for rural people. These costs will not be incurred again until the booklets are rewritten. In the meantime, the costs to the Centre are the costs of printing and distributing the booklets.

As I explained earlier, in undertaking new activities we were always more concerned about the running costs than the writing and developing costs. We felt that running costs should be covered by fees from learners, thus reducing Lesotho's expenses in running the Centre. Our fees for private candidates were based on this principle, as were the charges we made for our booklets. We also costed all our service agency activities on the basis that we should not lose money. Our work for the Ministry of Education was charged at the cost of the materials only, while for other Ministries and some non-governmental organisations we charged for materials and labour. Work for other institutions was charged at the cost of labour, materials and overheads — for those which could afford it. It is important to bear in mind, when looking at the costs of running each of the different activities above, that to establish and run any one of them by itself would probably cost much more than it cost the Centre. Because the Centre carried out a number of activities, there were economies. The printing and radio sections, for example, were cheaper because their costs were shared between a number of different activities. It would be a useful exercise to compare the costs (and the effectiveness) of the Centre's help for private candidates with those of an organisation doing only that work.

Costs per learner

Costing becomes very difficult indeed when you try to find out the cost per learner of any one activity. Firstly, you must define exactly what is meant by a learner. Is it somebody who gets the learning materials, or is it somebody who demonstrates that she has learned from them? For example, if we enrol 1 000 private candidates, do we divide the total costs of helping those private candidates by 1 000 or do we wait and see how many of the 1 000 pass the examination and divide by that number, thus getting the cost per 'successful' learner?

Summary of the Centre's expenditure 1 April 1978 to 31 March 1979 (in Maloti)

	Supporting activities ^a				Teaching activities ^a				Totals
	Adminis- tration and overheads	Production	Research	Radio	Rural education and service agency	Literacy and numeracy	Private candidates	Course Writing	
Staff & training	33 720	23 844	7 617	9 844	17 498	15 294	17 604	8 656	134 117
Tutors	—	—	—	—	—	—	9 149	—	9 149
Course materials and programme costs	4 006	44 897	2 046	4 976	3 863	7 536	3 130	2 100	72 554
Travel	3 387	1 152	2 493	784	2 360	2 648	1 963	1 156	15 941
Depreciation	450	6 708	106	1 408	156	244	309	72	9 453
Subtotal	41 563	76 599	12 262	17 052	23 877	25 722	32 155	11 984	241 214
Reallocation of supporting activity costs ^b	—	—	—	—	35 439	21 304	81 392	4 550	—
Total	—	—	—	—	59 316	47 026	113 547	16 534	241 214 ^c

Notes

- a. For convenience, we divide the activities of the Centre into supporting costs, where we cannot attribute expenditure directly to a programme of teaching, and teaching (or project) expenditure, where we can.
- b. In this row, in order to work out the total cost of each part of the Centre's teaching activities, we allocate all the supporting costs to the four teaching headings.
- c. The discrepancy between this figure and that for recurrent expenditure shown in the table on p.65 is mainly accounted for by salaries/supplementation of expatriates paid outside Lesotho.

The costs of learning to crochet

When we distribute a crochet booklet to 10 000 women, how do we find out who has successfully learned — given that some people may remember everything in the booklet and do nothing, others may remember little but have made clothes using the booklet, or still others may not use the booklet for two years but may then make clothes with it?

Despite the difficulty, we attempted to do this and came up with the following costs based on the results of an experiment. We produced a crochet booklet and sold it to individuals and then later measured the numbers who learned from the booklet. 24% learned everything and a further 16% learned something. We distributed the same booklet to groups, trained the group leaders and helped them to run their groups, and then measured the numbers who learned from the booklet. 67% learned everything; a further 18% learned something.

Using these figures and assuming a random sample, we were able to estimate the *lowest* percentage of people likely to learn from the booklets. We used these estimates and the actual costs of developing the booklets and distributing them to individuals, and came up with the first set of figures.

We did the same exercise for groups. Working out the costs of developing materials specifically for groups, training leaders, distributing the materials, etc., and again using the lower percentage of successful learners based on our experiment results, we came up with a second set of figures.

<i>Approach</i>	<i>No. of people exposed to materials</i>	<i>Total cost to Centre (Maloti)</i>	<i>Category of learner</i>	<i>No. of successful candidates</i>	<i>Cost per successful learner (Maloti)</i>
Sales to individuals	10800	4826	Learn everything	1300	3.71
			Learn at least something	3020	1.60

<i>Approach</i>	<i>No. of people exposed to materials</i>	<i>Total cost to Centre (Maloti)</i>	<i>Category of learner</i>	<i>No. of successful candidates</i>	<i>Cost per successful learner (Maloti)</i>
Materials-using groups	15000	4523	Learn everything	840	5.38
			Learn at least something	1160	3.90

Each successful learner costs almost twice as much. However, we would be successful with a higher percentage of learners if we used groups.

Finally we looked at the costs of running groups if we used materials which were already produced for individuals — the actual case with the crochet booklet. We found that the cost per successful learner came down to M3.30 for those who learned everything and to M2.39 for those who learned at least something.

Although an allowance for overheads is included in the calculations, these are not the total costs which would need to be met to start something like this from the beginning. The figures are nonetheless interesting. Simple crochet skills can be taught using booklets or groups or both, and the costs are reasonable. On the other hand, teaching people to successfully pass a Junior Certificate mathematics examination is a much more costly exercise.